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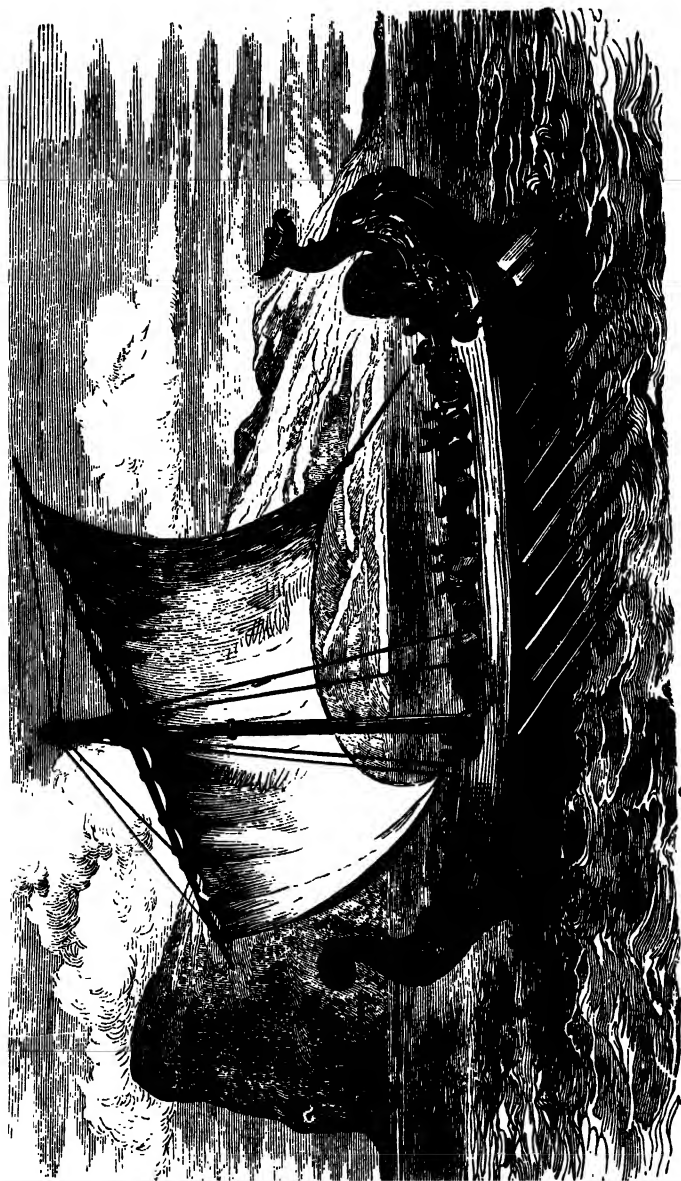
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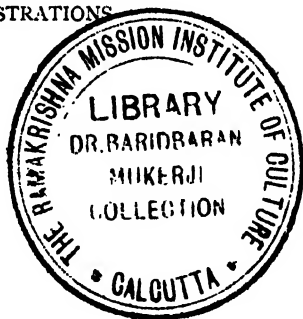
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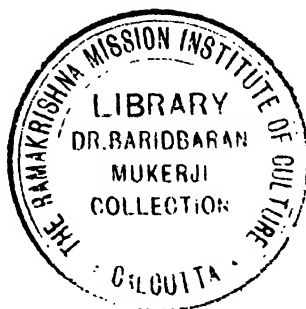
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# SHIPS OF THE ANCIENTS



# HALF HOURS IN EARLY NAVAL ADVENTURE.



## CHAPTER I.

### SHIPS OF THE ANCIENTS.

WRITINGS and records descriptive of the ships and seamanship of the ancients are few, fragmentary, and unsatisfactory as guides to a clear understanding on the subject. For graphic illustration concerning ancient ships, we are chiefly indebted to rude representations on coins, marbles, and monuments.

Such authorities as are extant upon the subject harmonise so far as to convey fairly correct impressions touching the ships of the periods to which they relate. From an eminent authority on the subject,<sup>1</sup> we extract a few notes descriptive of ships existing about the commencement of the Christian era.

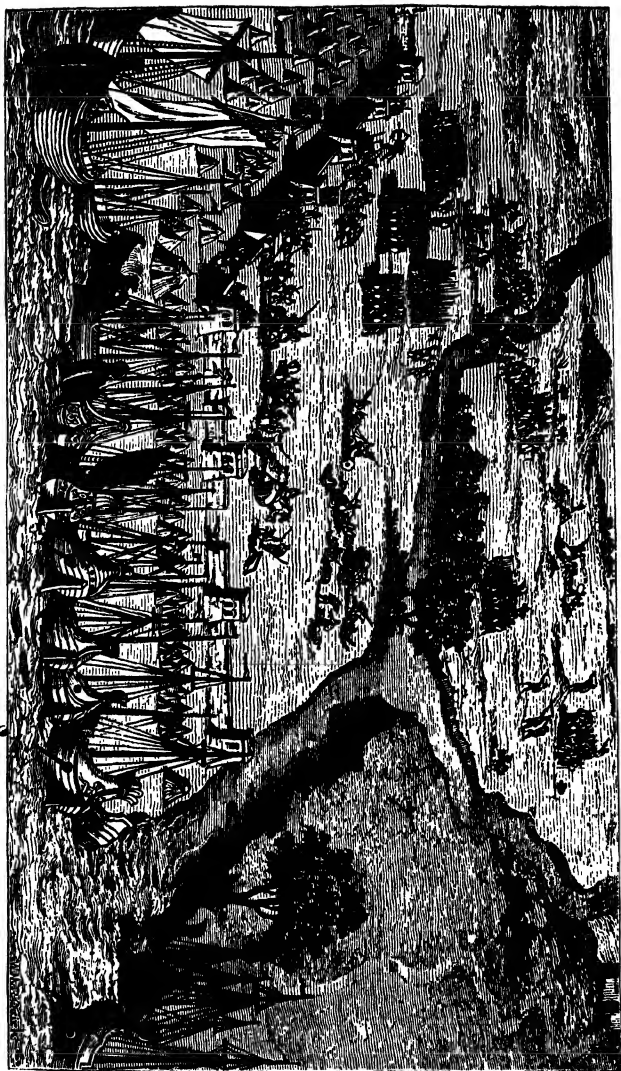
<sup>1</sup> *Voyage and Shipwreck of St. Paul.* By James Smith, F.R.S.



#### 4      HALF HOURS IN EARLY NAVAL ADVENTURE.

The fore part of the hull below the upper works differed but little in form from that of the ships of modern times, and, as both ends were alike, if we suppose a full-built ship of the present day cut in two, and the stern half replaced by one exactly the same as that of the bow, we shall have a pretty accurate notion of what these ships were like. In contour the sides were nearly straight for a space in the middle, curving upwards at each end, the stem and stern posts rising to a considerable height, and terminating with a sort of figure-head, the most common form being the head of a water-fowl bent backwards.

During a time of scarcity in Rome, the Emperor Commodus built a fleet of ships in which grain was imported from Egypt *via* Alexandria. One of these ships was driven by stress of weather into the Piræus, a partial description of which is given by Lucian. According to his computation, this Alexandrian ship was 120 cubits, or 180 feet, in length, and 45 feet, or one-fourth, in breadth. The stern rose gradually in a curve, and was surmounted by a golden cheniscus, the prow being constructed in a similar manner. In some of the ships the cheniscus was at the prow, and in others at the stern. The bulwarks round the deck were generally open rails, and there were in many ships projecting galleries at the bow and stern. The stern gallery was usually covered with an awning, and the galleries at the



GREEK SHIPS LANDING SOLDIERS.



bow served as places to stow the anchors and other ship's gearing.

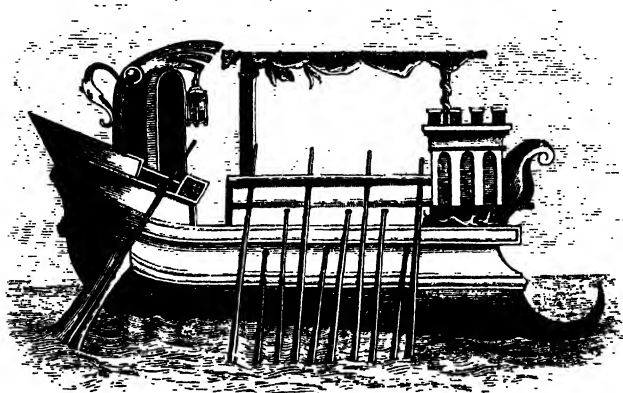
The marbles and paintings discovered at Pompeii and Herculaneum furnish interesting nautical details. The terrible fiery flood of lava which covered and congealed over them occurred about twenty years after the voyage of St. Paul to Rome. These pictorial representations are in agreement in so far, as they go with the description given by St. Luke, in the Acts of the Apostles, of the ship which carried the great apostle, and of its handling by the mariners. In a ship represented in one of the paintings found at Herculaneum, a capstan with a hawser coiled round it is shown. In an edition of Virgil published at Rome, a figure of the ship of Ulysses is given, which also shows a cable coiled round a windlass.

Ancient ships were not steered as those of modern times, by rudders hinged to the stern-post, but by two great oars or paddles, one on each side of the stern. All large ships had thus two rudders.

In dimensions some of the ships of the ancients appear to have been as large as the average of merchantmen of the present day. The ship in which St. Paul commenced his voyage, and which was wrecked, carried a company of 276 persons in passengers and crew, in addition to a cargo of wheat. The vessel in which the shipwrecked party were carried on from Malta must

have been of the same class. The ship in which Josephus was wrecked contained 600 people.

From the representations of these ancient ships that have been discovered, it would appear that they were rigged with extreme simplicity. They depended for progression upon a single square sail, any other sails being quite subordinate. Although ships with three



ANCIENT SHIP, SHOWING ONE OF THE GREAT OARS USED AS RUDDERS

sails are mentioned by Lucian, it may be inferred that they were uncommon, and that the sails of ancient ships consisted of one large square main-sail, and a smaller sail at the bow.

From Pliny, Herodotus, and other ancient writers, and skilful commentators on their writings, we learn that the rate of sailing of these simply rigged ancient

ships came little short of the rate attained in our own time, viz. to 6, 7, and 8 miles per hour. The ship in which St. Paul sailed from Rhegium reached Puteoli on the following day. Experts compute the distance at 182 miles, and the time at 26 hours, which gives a rate of 7 miles an hour.

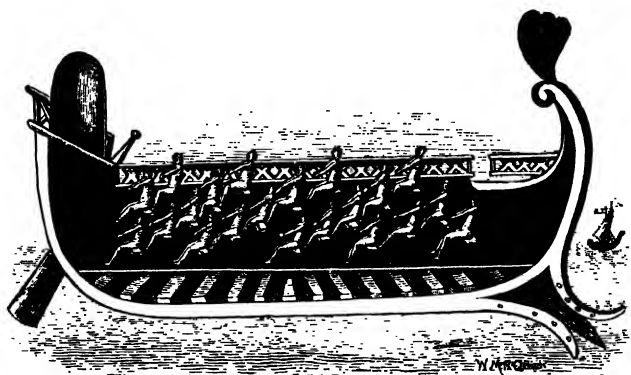
There were good reasons for ancient mariners refraining from voyages in winter, without attributing to them timidity or want of skill. They lay up in winter not from fear of the gales which then prevail, but because of the comparative obscurity of the sky, which deprived them of the principal means they had of directing their course, in observations of the heavenly bodies. Although the Chinese are said to have had knowledge of the mariner's compass somewhere about eleven centuries before Christ, it was not known in Europe until it was introduced perhaps by Marco Polo about A.D. 1280.

These particulars refer to the "mercantile marine" of ancient mariners. Information concerning their equivalent to our "Royal Navy," respecting the construction of their war vessels, the internal arrangements for the rowers, and what equivalent they had, if any, for our "quarter-deck," is obscure and scanty. Some of their fighting ships carried and were worked by hundreds of oars, or sweeps. The fighting men, in some of them, occupied longitudinal upper decks, projecting slightly over the bulwarks to the outer side, and for a considerable

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width inwards over the main deck. The class of fighting ships called triremes were worked by three ranges of oars at different heights, the two lower ranges working in oar ports, pierced through the bulwarks, the upper row working in rowlocks, on the outer edge of the side upper decks or gangways.

The galley of Ptolemy Philopator is stated by Athenæus



SECTION, FIGHTING SHIP, WORKED BY RANGES OF OARS AT DIFFERENT HEIGHTS.

to have been 280 cubits, or 420 feet, in length, and 38 cubits, or 57 feet, in width, which would give a measurement of about 4000 tons. The oars, or sweeps, of the highest range are given as 57 feet in length, which, it is stated, is not more than the length of the sweeps that have been used in the present century in our war sloops.

The illustrious author, Julius Caesar, gives an interest-

ing description of the ships of the northern barbarians, by whom he was resisted in his career of conquest :—

“Their ships were built and fitted out in this manner : Their bottoms were somewhat flatter than ours, the better to adapt them to the shallows, and to sustain without danger the ebbing of the tide. Their prows were very high and erect, as likewise their sterns, to bear the hugeness of the waves and the violence of the tempests. The hull of the vessel was entirely of oak, to stand the shocks and assaults of that tempestuous ocean. The benches of the rowers were made of strong beams about a foot in breadth, and were fastened with iron bolts an inch thick. Instead of cables, they fastened their anchors with chains of iron ; and used skins and a thin sort of pliant leather for sails, either because they had not canvas, and were ignorant of the art of making sailcloth, or, which is more probable, because they imagined canvas sails were not so proper to bear the violence of the tempests, the rage and fury of the winds, and to propel ships of that bulk and burthen. Between our fleet and vessels of such a construction the result was this—in agility and a ready command of oars we had the advantage ; but in other respects, regarding the situation of the coast and the assaults of storms, all things ran very much in their favour, for neither could our ships injure them with their prows, so great was their strength and firmness, nor could we easily throw in our

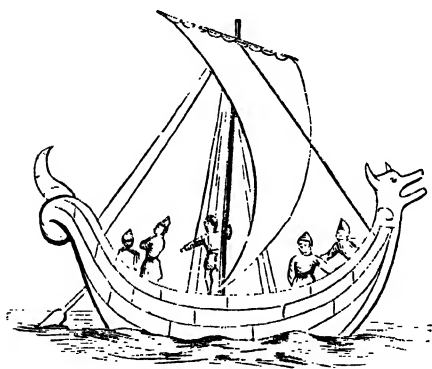


darts, because of their height above us, which also was the reason that we found it extremely difficult to grapple with the enemy and bring them to close fight. Add to all this, that when the sea began to rage, and they were forced to submit to the winds, they could both weather the storm better, and more securely trust themselves among the shallows, because they feared nothing from the rocks and cliffs upon the ebbing of the tide.”<sup>1</sup>

The seamen he had to encounter gave Cæsar a good deal of trouble in different places, amongst others the Veneti, who had much traffic with Britain. Having made an attack upon them, he found it would be discreet to wait until the whole of his fleet came up; when it did, and had been descried by the Venetans, they gallantly went out and met it, with about two hundred of their best ships or boats, fighting men and mariners armed with all kinds of weapons, and formed in line of battle. The Roman commanders, aware that the enemy's ships were proof against the prows of their galleys, erected turrets on their decks, but they were still overtopped by the lofty sterns of the Venetans, whose missiles, impelled from a height, fell with great force among the Romans, who resorted to a curious expedient for attack. They attached curved scythes to the ends of long poles, seizing with the scythes the enemy's rigging, and rowing off.

<sup>1</sup> *De Bello Gallico*, Lib. iii. and xiii.

When a grip had been got, the ropes by which the yards and sails were secured were cut through, which brought down the sailing gear in a heap, making the ships unmanageable and their crews helpless. A dead calm also ensuing enabled the Romans to obtain a complete and easy victory.



# THE PHŒNICIANS.



## CHAPTER II.

### HISTORY AND RECORDS.

"Thy shores are empires, changed in all save thee.  
Assyria, Greece, Ronic, Carthage—what are they?  
Thy waters wasted them while they were free,  
And many a tyrant since: their shores obey  
The stranger, slave, or savage; their decay  
Has dried up realms to deserts, not so thou:  
Unchangeable save to thy wild waves' play,  
Time writes no wrinkle on thine azure brow—  
Such as Creation's dawn beheld, thou rollest now."

MARINE architecture is an ancient art, and mercantile marine enterprise and successful colonisation were extensively and successfully active many ages before the time when the description would apply to our ancestors in the British Isles—

"Wild in the woods the noble savage ran."

No doubt the first great ship of which we have any account was exceptional in respect to the builder's

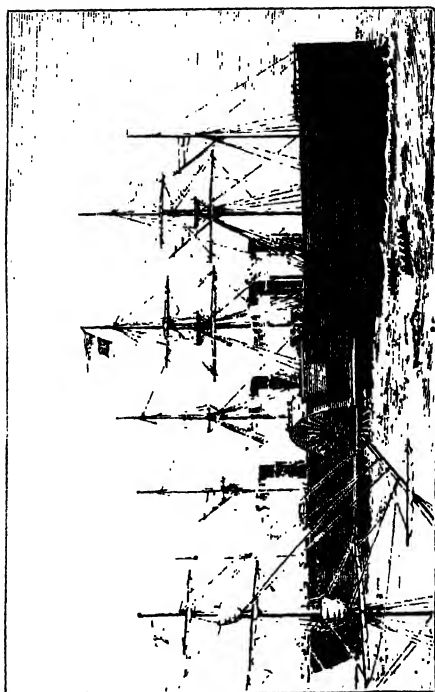
instructions and the whole attendant circumstances, and, as bearing upon maritime affairs, the dimensions of the great vessel must be given. The ark was made of gopher or cypress wood, a kind of timber which, both for its lightness and durability, was employed by the Phœnicians for building their vessels. Alexander the Great made use of it for the same purpose.

The common cubit was reckoned, according to several learned authorities, as equal to six hand-breadths, the hand-breadth at  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches. This gives 21 inches to a cubit. The ark was 300 cubits, or 525 feet, in length; 50 cubits, or 87 feet 6 inches, in breadth; and 30 cubits, or 52 feet 6 inches, in height. This is considerably larger than the largest British man-of-war; but not so large as the *Great Eastern*, which was 680 feet—deck, 691 feet—in length, 83 feet in breadth, and 58 feet in depth. Vessels built on the same proportions as the ark have been found admirably adapted for freightage.

The commencement of maritime enterprise, prosecuted with great spirit and success, commenced with the Canaanites,—in some connections referred to as the Philistines, in others as the Phœnicians,—the descendants of Canaan, the youngest son of Ham, and grandson of Noah. The Phœnicians as merchants, traders by sea and land, as colonisers and settlers, as men of letters, literally, as men of skill, science, learning, and resource, were a long way ahead of the peoples of their time.

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They were a wonderful people, and have been fitly likened in the part they played in the old world to the cement that connects the blocks in a building, or to the



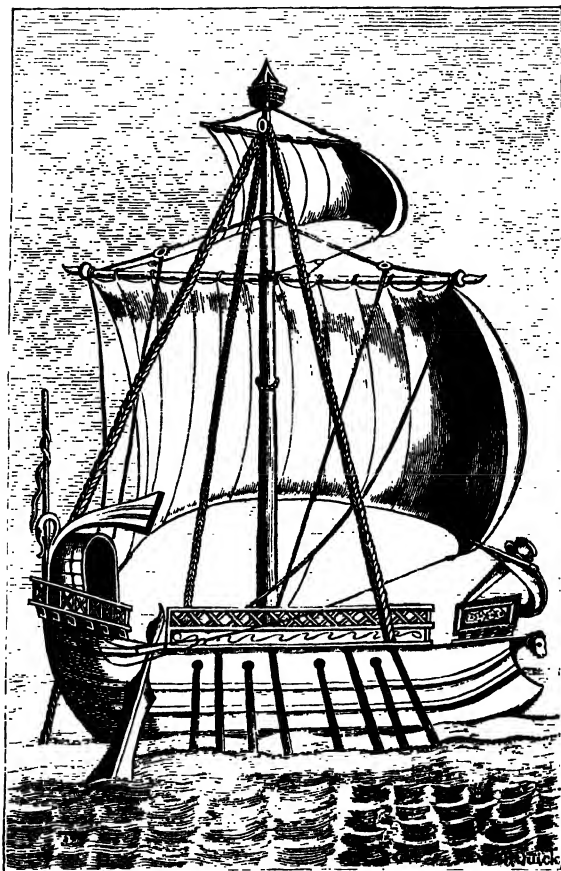
THE GREAT EASTERN.

veins and arteries that carry the life-blood through the body. They occupied only a small territory in Syria of about 180 miles from north to south, lying between the river Jordan and the mountains of Lebanon on the

east and the Mediterranean Sea on the west, about 20 miles wide at its northern, and 90 miles wide at its southern extremities respectively—a state small in itself, but marvellously great in its people.

Arms took no part in the growth of Phœnicia, conquest had no share in its greatness. They gathered and redistributed the fruits of the earth and the products of human labour and skill. Their business was with homely and common things as well as with products rich and rare. Their origin and history are shrouded in the mists of antiquity. Our profoundest scholars differ as to whether the Phœnicians got their gods from Greece, or gave them to that people ; as to the form of government which prevailed in the great cities of Phœnicia—Tyre and Sidon ; and as to the taxes imposed upon her merchandise.

We see in the Phœnicians the phenomena of dominion without conquest, greatness without ambition, permanency with limited numbers, freedom without turbulence, commerce without legislation, and riches without attendant pauperism. “Neither arrogant in their strength nor servile in their weakness, they could abstain from encroachments upon those who afforded them settlements, and still maintain their own peculiar character. Their commerce paid tribute to, and received it from, every country whose shores they visited, and was enriched by such interchanges of goods and products. It took tithe of



ANCIENT SHIP, SHOWING THE SINGLE SQUARE MAINSAIL ON WHICH IT DEPENDS.—*Page 8.*

the spices of Malabar and the Philippines, of the frankincense of Abyssinia and Arabia, of the fine linen of Egypt, of the herds and camels of Dederi, of the corn and oil of Judæa, of the ivory and ebony of Lybia and Hindostan, of the gold of Spain, of the tin of Cornwall and the Scilly Isles (Cassiterides), and of the amber of the Baltic. It had its colonies and its stores at Taprobane (Ceylon), at Cadiz, in Britain, and other places."

The emblematic plants of England were also those of Phœnicia—the oak and the ivy; the rose of England is still the flower of Spain, and originally Phœnician; and the blood-red hand of Ulster is in Morocco stuck above every door. Mr. Urquhart, in his *Pillars of Hercules*, instinctively seeks, and by diligence and ingenuity finds much to "link us to the Phœnicians." There seems to be a close resemblance at many points between the ancient Phœnicians and the modern Britons.

The maritime and commercial greatness of the Phœnicians are grandly described by the prophet Ezekiel in the 27th chapter of that book. The ancient Tyre was a dual city and port, one part upon a rocky peninsula and the other upon the shore of the mainland. It is referred to by the prophet Amos as situated at the entry to the sea, and as being a merchant to the people of many isles. "Her ships' boards were of the fir trees of Senir, and their masts of cedars from Lebanon. Their



oars were of the oaks of Bashan ; the company of the Ashurites made for them benches of ivory, brought from the isles of Chittim. Their sails were of fine linen with broidered work from Egypt. The inhabitants of Sidon and Arvad were the mariners of Tyre ; wise men were their pilots ; the ancients of Gebal and the wise men thereof were their caulkers. All the ships of the sea used Tyre to occupy its merchandise. The men of Persia and of Lud and of Phut were the men of war, and constituted the army of Phœnicia. The men of Arvad was with their army and upon the walls round about ; and the Gammadims were in the towers of Tyre ; they hanged their shields and their helmets round about. Tarshish was thy merchant by reason of the multitude of all kinds of riches ; with silver, iron, tin, and lead, they traded in thy fairs. Javan, Tubal, and Meshech, they were thy merchants : they traded the persons of men " (were engaged in the slave trade) " and vessels of brass in thy market. They of the house of Togarmah traded in thy fairs with horses and horsemen and mules. The men of Dedan were thy merchants ; many isles were the merchandise of thine hand : they brought thee for a present horns of ivory and ebony. Syria was thy merchant by reason of the multitude of the wares of thy making : they occupied in thy fairs with emeralds, purple, and broidered work, and fine linen, and coral, and agate. Judah and the land of Israel, they were thy merchants :

they traded in thy market wheat of Minnith, and Pannag, and honey, and oil, and balm. Damascus was thy merchant in the multitude of the wares of thy making, in the wine of Helbon, and white wool. Dan also and Javan going to and fro occupied in thy fairs: bright iron, cassia, and calamus, were in thy market. Dedan was thy market in precious clothes for chariots. Arabia and all the princes of Kedar, they occupied with thee in lambs, and rams, and goats. The merchants of Sheba and Raamah occupied in thy fairs with chief of all spices, and with all precious stones, and gold. Haran and Canneh, and Eden, the merchants of Sheba, Asshur, and Chilmad were thy merchants. These were thy merchants in all sorts of things, in blue clothes, and brodered work, and in chests of rich apparel, bound with cords, and made of cedar, among thy merchandise. The ships of Tarshish did sing of thee in thy market: and thou wast replenished, and made very glorious in the midst of the seas."

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# THE PHCENICIANS.



## CHAPTER III.

### MERCHANTS AND COLONISTS.

THE Phœnicians occupied a coast country that would naturally incline them, active and enterprising as they were, to maritime pursuits.

Fishing was naturally a common pursuit with these dwellers on the coast, and their fishing experiences led them doubtless to the discovery of the remarkable source from which the renowned imperial purple dye was obtained. According to one learned writer, "there is no reason to doubt" that this curious dye-stuff is obtained from the juice of a species of shell-fish—the murex (*purpura*)—found on the coasts of Tyre. The tradition is that the Tyrian Hercules had a favourite dog, which one day, being hungry, broke into the house of a certain crustacean that came in his way, and made a meal of the tenant. The dog's mouth, after its dinner, was stained a superb

colour—imperial purple. Hercules, on seeing this, tried the effect of the fish gravy upon some wool, and presented the first sample of the dyed wool to the King of Tyre, who so greatly admired it as to issue a decree that the use of the dye should be restricted to the robes of royalty. The murex is found in various parts of the Mediterranean. It adheres to rocks washed by the sea, and is about the size of a walnut. The colour imparted is first milky-white, changing to green, and then to purple, when the dyed material is dry. Another learned writer makes light of this pretty tradition, and pronounces it a ruse on the part of the Phœnicians to divert attention from the real source of the purple dye, the secret of which they possessed in their knowledge of the cochineal insect. According to one of these writers, Mr. Bruce, if the whole of the inhabitants of Tyre had been fishers, and had done nothing else but fish all the year round, all the murexes in the Mediterranean would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth either puce or purple, or any other slightly colour.

The Phœnicians of historic times date from a period very far back in the life of the world, their origin is lost in prehistoric mist. Like the Egyptians, the race claimed an antiquity of thirty thousand years; but there are, of course, no records extant as to their existence at such a remote period, or as to their trade, commerce, and

navigation, or the kind of "bottoms" in which they fished, or fought, or traded. The common unlearned people read about them first as Canaanites, and of Phœnicia as the land of Canaan (Kěna'an, or Kěna'). Ten centuries at least before Christ, Tyre and Sidon were great cities of Phœnicia, each ruled over by its own king. They were, as has been shown, active in various important manufactures, were great merchants, and extensive distributors of merchandise by land and sea. Whether kelp and sand, or other substances, were the raw materials they used, we do not know, but they were among the earliest experts—Egypt probably preceded them—in glass manufacture. Whether they were most indebted to the "purple-giving murex" or to cochineal, they were renowned for their dyed fabrics. Ancient writers testify that the Phœnicians brought these and other arts to perfection, spread the knowledge of them, and were foremost as inventors among the nations of their time. They were a great trading nation, and the honour has been ascribed to them of having invented arithmetic measure and weight. The uses of these and the art of writing they communicated to all the nations surrounding the Mediterranean.

The beginnings of the art of navigation have been generally attributed to the Phœnicians. The Greeks noted with admiration the skill with which the Phœ-



THE GREAT SHIPS OF TARSHISH, THAT WERE UNEQUALLED  
FOR SIZE AND SPEED.



nicians built, loaded, managed, and navigated their ships—the great ships of Tarshish, that were unequalled for size and speed.

In the Arabian caravan trade in perfume, spices, and incense for worship, the Phœnicians had a large transport interest, these commodities being produced not by Arabia, but in Eastern Africa and India. Sheba in Gemen was the emporium of the whole trade. The Phœnician trade with Egypt was firmly rooted, and economic affairs in Syria and Palestine were greatly dependent upon the Phœnicians. From Cilicia they shipped the produce of the Euphrates regions; from the island of Cyprus opposite they took their supplies of timber and copper.

The Phœnicians were enterprising colonists, the western half of the Mediterranean, and the Atlantic coasts north and south of Gibraltar, being the chief localities of their settlements. The trade with Tarshish, the region of the Tartessus, or modern Guadalquivir, constituted their chief commercial glory and greatness. In this district they had profitable fisheries, and rich mines of silver and other metals, with access to them by the navigable rivers Guadalquivir and Guadiana. Next they ventured farther, and drew tin from the mines of North-West Spain, and from the richer deposits of Cornwall. Amber, also, they brought in early times from the far north of Europe. Their rich



trade with Spain led to the colonisation of the West—a colonisation that the Phœnicians prosecuted on a large scale. The first colonists, and the Carthaginians after them, stamped South-Western Europe and North-Western Africa with a thoroughly Phœnician character. It has been reasonably suggested that so great a number of colonists could not have been supplied from within the narrow bounds of Phœnicia proper, but that contingents were furnished by the inland Canaanites, who had been driven inwards by the Philistines and Hebrews.

Under Persian rule, Phœnicia, Palestine, and Syria formed the fifth satrapy, and paid a tribute of £99,296. The Phœnicians were favoured subjects because of their indispensable fleet: having also common interests against Greece, they were amongst the most loyal subjects of the empire.

The Phœnicians were the founders of Carthage, whence they extended their power to Spain, further pursued their discoveries, and prosecuted trade, as has been already stated, along the coast of France, and across the mouth of the Channel to Cornwall. The home situation of the Phœnicians was admirably adapted, occupied as it was by an energetic race, to commercial enterprise. They were close to a junction of Africa, Asia, and Europe, and enabled by commercial intercourse to interchange the commodities of the

peoples of each of these divisions of the world respectively for the productions of the others. They made the most of the creeks, harbours, and ports of their own limited territory, and acquired others in addition, that they made remarkable for strength, safety, and accommodation. Their manufactures acquired such celebrity as to make the designation "Sidonian" the fittest term to apply to whatever was excellent or elegant in art or manufacture. They were a nation of merchants, aiming at the rule of the sea and the leading place in commerce, whether by sea or land. Their daring and enterprising spirit was, as we have seen, far-reaching. They acquired several commodious harbours towards the bottom of the Arabian gulf, from which they established regular intercourse with Arabia, India, and the eastern coast of Africa. They also possessed the nearest port in the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, and there reshipped cargoes that had been brought by land from Elath, the safest harbour in the Red Sea toward the north, and thus to transport them to Tyre, whence they were distributed to other parts of the world. The ships of Hiram, King of Tyre, brought gold to King Solomon from Ophir.

They were directed in their long and perilous voyages by the course of the sun during the day, and by the stars at night, and notably by the Pole star, to which the Greeks, from the use made of it, applied the term. "the

Phœnician Star." For many ages Tyre and Sidon were the most flourishing cities and emporiums of Asia; their colonies included Byzantium (Constantinople), the Grecian Thebes, Byrsa (Carthage), Utica (Biserta), and Gades (Cadiz). 15493

Herodotus informs us that Pharaoh Necho, King of Egypt, after he had abandoned the project of cutting a canal from the Nile to the Red Sea, sent out some Phœnicians on a voyage of discovery by that sea through the straits of Babelmandel, to survey the coasts of Africa. They sailed round the continent, 611-605 B.C., and came home the third year by way of the straits of Gibraltar. This wonderful voyage was performed two thousand years before Vasco de Gama, the Portuguese discoverer, found, in the year 1497, the same sea route to India as that which had been discovered by the Phœnicians so many centuries earlier. Herodotus discredited the report of these early navigators, of whom he says, "Their relation may obtain attention from others, but to me it seems incredible." The weight of evidence, however, is in favour of the Phœnicians having doubled the Cape at the early period stated.

Carthage, on the bay of Tunis, is supposed to have been founded by the Phœnicians about 900 years B.C. The Carthaginians were also people of maritime, commercial, and warlike renown.

Carthage lies, says Strabo, in a kind of peninsula, forty-five miles in circumference, walled round, the neck or isthmus taking up sixty stadia,<sup>1</sup> where stood the stalls for the elephants. In the heart of the city stood Byrsa, the citadel. Below this lay the harbour and Cothon,



SIDON.

a small round island, encompassed with a narrow gut, furnished on every side, quite round, with docks for ships. It occupied a convenient central station in the Mediterranean, had a fine country behind it,

<sup>1</sup> The stadium was 200 $\frac{1}{4}$  yards English measure.

and was not in the neighbourhood of any power capable of restraining either its commerce or its naval power. By degrees the Carthaginians extended their connections in all directions, and conquered the best part of Spain. These conquests were, however, inconsiderable when compared with their maritime enterprise.

# THE ROMANS AT SEA.



## CHAPTER IV.

POMPEY THE GREAT, HANNIBAL, CÆSAR.

THE Phœnicians availed themselves of the sea as a highway mainly as a means of extending commerce and their own influence, for the facilities it afforded in settling colonies, thereby multiplying their trading connections, and widening the gathering ground of their commerce, rather than for purposes of conquest. With the Romans, the subjugation of the world was the paramount idea, and the sea was only of value or account, in their estimation, in so far as it helped or hindered them in their performances on the war-path. The toil and care of working a mercantile marine were unworthy of the consideration of Roman heroes. "Rome, the mistress of the world; Pompey" (or Cæsar, as the case might be), "master of Rome," seemed to be the motto. The sea was useful to them, however, on occasion, to serve their purpose, and they condescended to use it.

The most notable and imposing exploits in the wars of the Romans were performed on land, but both they and the Carthaginians before them distinguished themselves also by many ably contrived and successfully executed expeditions and actions at sea.

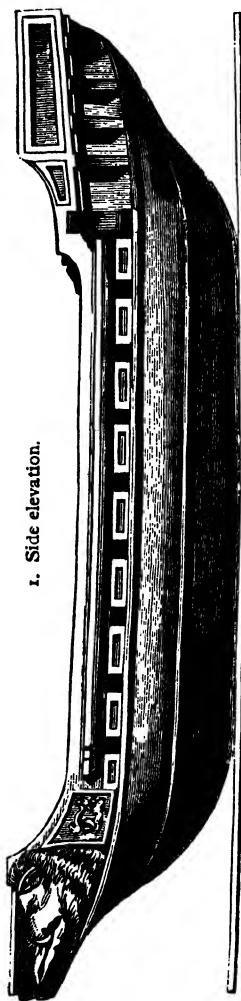
The Carthaginians were dashing and skilful mariners, but the records concerning both their principal actions at sea, and the leaders engaged in them, are unfortunately scanty.

There were many Hannibals who figured in Phœnician and Carthaginian history, but only one renowned for the bold and perilous march over the Alps, whose prowess does not come within our province. It may be mentioned, by the way, that the name Hannibal means "the grace or favour of Baal," the final syllable *bal*, of such common occurrence in Punic names, always having reference to this tutelary deity of the Phœnicians.

Hannibal, a son of Hasdrubal, carried on successful wars against the Africans, Numidians, and Mauritanians, and was largely instrumental in establishing the dominion of Carthage on the continent of Africa. Another Hannibal, son of Gisco, was a chief magistrate of Carthage. About the year B.C. 410, the Athenians made an unsuccessful attack upon Sicily. The Greeks were beaten off, but the Segestans were next threatened by the Selenites, and implored the assistance of Carthage. The Senate gave plenary powers to Hannibal, who collected a force of

mercenaries from different parts of Spain and Africa, and embarked with an army of 100,000 men, with whom he landed at Lilybaeum. He proceeded at once to attack Selinus, one of the richest and most powerful cities in Sicily, which he took after a siege of nine days, with the horrible result that the city was plundered by the horde of hired invaders, and almost utterly destroyed, excepting only a few of the temples. Hannibal next took Himera, which was defended by Diocles at the head of a body of Syracusans and other auxiliaries. Alarmed for the safety of Syracuse, a portion of the defenders withdrew, leaving the others to their terrible fate. Hannibal abandoned the doomed place to be plundered by his soldiers. The victorious and merciless general ordered for slaughter three thousand prisoners—a horrible holocaust to avenge the death of his grandfather Hamilcar, King of the Carthaginians, who died upon the same field in a terrible battle, B.C. 480, when he invaded Sicily at the head of an army of 300,000 men. In the year B.C. 406, the same Hannibal,—the destroyer of Selinus and Himera,—with an army of mercenaries, invaded Sicily, and laid siege to Agrigentum. A pestilence broke out in the camp, carried off the commander, and closed that campaign. Yet another Hannibal, son of Hamilcar, was a dashing naval officer, and a friend of the Carthaginian naval commander, Adherbal. He was appointed, B.C. 250, in the fifteenth year of the first

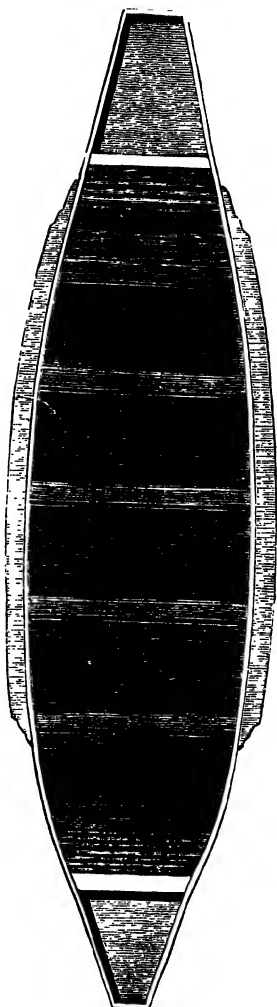




1. Side elevation.

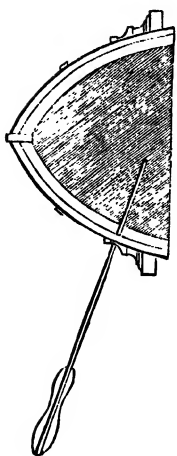
ROMAN GALLEY, FROM THE MODEL PRESENTED BY LORD ANSON TO GREENWICH HOSPITAL

Punic war, to command a squadron destined for the relief of Lilybaeum, blockaded by the Romans. He sailed from Carthage with fifty ships, and brought up at the small islands of the Aegusae, lying off the west coast of Sicily, to wait a favourable wind, which, having arisen, he spread all sail, and ran right into the harbour of Lilybaeum, before the Romans could get their ships together to oppose him. He thus landed a force of 10,000 men, besides a large supply of provisions. This, it will be seen, gives an average of two hundred men for each ship, in addition to the sailors, and the freight of provisions. Having delivered cargo, he again dashed out to sea, and joined the fleet of Adherbal, with whom, it is believed, he shared in the glory of a decided victory over the Roman naval commander

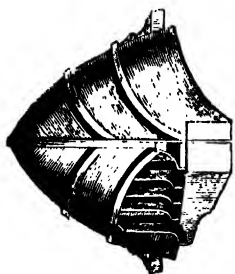


2. Plan.

3. Midship section.



5. Elevation  
of stern.



4. Elevation  
of stern.

Claudius, in the following year. In the same year (B.C. 249), Hannibal was despatched with thirty ships to Panormus, where he seized the Roman corn stores, carried them off, and landed them successfully at the besieged Lilybaeum. Another successful blockade runner was Hannibal, surnamed the Rhodian, who performed wonders of dashing bravery with his own single craft, running in and out of the harbour at Lilybaeum during the siege, keeping up the communication of the besieged with Carthage, in spite of the Roman blockading squadron. But he was caught at last by the enemy, who made use of the craft whose swiftness they so well knew, and, it was believed, adopted it as a model after which to construct their own vessels.

Pompey, the great Roman, belongs to a later date than the Hannibals. He was born B.C. 106. As there were many Carthaginian Hannibals, so there were many Roman Pompeys, but only one Pompey "Magnus," afterwards the triumvir. Pompey the Great is not to be lost in the crowd—

"You blocks, you stones, you worse than senseless things!  
 O you hard hearts! you cruel men of Rome!  
 Knew you not Pompey? Many a time and oft  
 Have you climb'd up to walls and battlements,  
 To towers and windows, yea, to chimney tops,  
 Your infants in your arms, and there have sat  
 The live-long day, with patient expectation,  
 To see great Pompey pass the streets of Rome."

Pompey, one of the greatest generals the world has known, commenced his career as a soldier when only seventeen years of age, and rose to the supreme command.

About the year B.C. 68, Pompey, after about twenty years of distinguished military service, remained in Rome for about two years ; but the necessities of the commonwealth, and his own active temperament and not easily satisfied ambition, forbade his remaining inactive, and a new sphere presented itself to him for the exercise of his judgment, skill, valour, and capability as a commander of men, and this time upon an element—the sea—on which he had not been much accustomed to command. The Mediterranean Sea swarmed with pirates. The aggressive wars and wars amongst themselves, with which the Roman forces had been engaged, had absorbed the attention that should have been shared, at least, by naval affairs. In the absence of cruisers to keep them down, the water-rats—that is, the pirates of the Mediterranean—had grown and multiplied in numbers, power, and audacity. They possessed fleets of cruisers, and subjected the whole of the coast inhabitants, and even the inhabitants of inland cities and towns, to ruinous losses by their ever-recurring descents upon them, and to a reign of paralysing, abject terror. They plundered the wealthy cities of Greece and the islands, and even of Italy, and had at last gone so far

in their unbridled career as to extend their nefarious incursions to the African way, and to carry off Roman magistrates, lictors, and their retinues. Communication between Rome and the provinces was either cut off by the pirates, or rendered extremely dangerous ; the fleets of corn-ships, on which Rome was dependent to a great extent for subsistence, could not reach the port, and the price of provisions rose enormously. Such a state of things had become intolerable ; demand for suppression of the evil was urgent ; the very existence of the commonwealth was endangered, and the Romans naturally looked to Pompey, the greatest Roman of them all, for deliverance. Pompey was willing to act, but, astutely, upon conditions. He was averse to risk partial success, or failure because of limited powers. The people, with whom he was immensely popular, distressed as they were by the scarcity and ruinous price of provisions, would have granted him almost any powers he might think proper to ask for, but the patricians dreaded his ambition, and were unwilling to entrust him with unlimited powers. Pompey arranged with Gabinius—a tribune of indifferent character, possessing, possibly, an “itching palm,” which Pompey knew how to tickle—to bring a proposal before the Senate for its sanction and authority, giving almost absolute powers, for three years, to a commander in the Mediterranean, and to a distance of fifty miles inland from its coasts. Pompey was not



POMPEY STARTING WITH AN EXPEDITION AGAINST THE PIRATES.



named in the bill, but there was a tacit understanding among all parties, that if such a functionary was to be appointed, and such an expedition against the pirates so urgently needed to be undertaken, Pompey stood in the foremost place for appointment to the command,—there was no presentable, scarcely a possible, competitor. It was proposed that this great officer of the commonwealth should have fifteen legates from the Senate under his direction; should have a fleet of two hundred ships, with as many soldiers and sailors under his command as he thought necessary; and a working capital of 6000 Attic talents.<sup>1</sup>

Pompey, as already stated, was almost a god with the plebeians, but was regarded with fear and dislike by the patricians, who were excited to wild alarm by this proposal. They feared for themselves that they would be degraded through his ambition, and for their friends and relatives who held provinces, degradation and loss in being subjected to the new dictatorship. The proposal excited the most vigorous opposition on the part of the aristocracy; whereas the people, affected by the scarcity and famine price of provisions, evils from

<sup>1</sup> This was £1,462,500, the value of the Attic talent being £243, 15s. This was a pretty large demand upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer of the time, considering the purchasing power of money and its relative scarcity, and was likely to cause much speculation on 'Change, and lively debate and "obstruction" in the Committee on Ways and Means in the Senate.



which they looked to Pompey for deliverance, warmly supported the project. Serious riots resulted. The life of Gabinius was threatened on the one hand, and on the other the life of Consul Piso, representative of the aristocracy. Cæsar, afterwards colleague of Pompey in the triumvirate, and after that his enemy in the battlefield, was the only senator who supported the proposal; Catulus and Hortensius eloquently denounced the bill. Pompey—an artful politician as well as a valiant soldier—attempted to abate the opposition on personal grounds, by declaring, honestly or otherwise, his desire to rest a while from active service. The bill was passed, and became law; Pompey appeared before the people, accepted the command, and asked for enormously greater powers than had been originally proposed, which were granted. He obtained powers to build 500 ships, to raise a force of 120,000 foot-soldiers and sailors, 5000 cavalry, to have 24 legates under his direction, and to take as much money from the public treasury as he might think necessary. On the day the bill passed there was a great drop in the price of provisions, which was taken as a conclusive answer to the objections of the aristocracy, and evidence that the people's trust in Pompey's powers was not misplaced.

Pompey's plans were with promptitude and vigour entered upon at once, and completed in a few months,

from which it may be inferred that his ships were comparatively small and slight structures. His plans were formed with great skill and sound judgment, and were carried out with complete success. He stationed his legates, each with the command of a squadron, in various parts of the Mediterranean, to prevent the pirates from uniting, and to hunt them out of the bays and creeks in which they concealed themselves. From the west, he swept the main of the Mediterranean with his principal fleet, driving the pirates eastwards. In forty days he so cleared the sea of the pirates, as to restore the communications that had either been stopped or rendered extremely hazardous between Spain, Africa, and Italy. After remaining for a short time in Italy, the coasts of which he had cleared, Pompey sailed from Brindisi to Cilicia, whither the pirates had been hunted in great numbers. Calling at Athens, where his fame, and knowledge of his successful treatment of the pirate scourge, had reached before him, Pompey was actually received with the honours given to the gods. With the assistance of his legates, he cleared the seas as he went along. With admirable judgment he tempered justice with mercy, and in consequence of his unlooked-for leniency, many of the pirates not only surrendered to him, but furnished him with valuable information, which enabled him the more quickly and completely to accomplish the grand mission of law and order, justice and

civilisation, that he had undertaken. The main body of the pirates had taken their families and spoils to the heights of Mount Taurus ; those who had not surrendered were driven to bay near Coracæsiu, near the western boundary of Cilicia. Here they were attacked by Pompey, and completely crushed. The pirates abandoned their ships and fled inland, but afterwards made a complete surrender of themselves and their property, and also engaged to evacuate their strong places. The humanity with which Pompey had treated the pirates who had first fallen into his hands, probably contributed in an important degree to this satisfactory result, and averted what might have been a tedious, difficult, and inglorious expedition among the fastnesses of Mount Taurus. The numbers of the pirates that Pompey had engaged to clear away, and the magnitude of the evil he had undertaken to suppress, may be inferred from the fact that in this single action he took twenty thousand prisoners. Some ruthless conquerors would have disposed of them summarily with little thought for their future, but Pompey, although ambitious, was not cruel or reckless. He could not turn such prisoners loose upon society, but wisely distributed them among different towns, under such arrangements as were most likely to make it difficult for them to resume their former mode of life.

The suppression of the pirates by Pompey, although

destitute of glare and glitter, "pomp and circumstance," really furnishes, in the results, one of the most glorious chapters in his history and the history of naval warfare. It gives the battle of Coracæsium a place among the great naval actions of the world, and stamps Pompey, by the short and brilliantly successful application of the powers at his disposal, one of the most able admirals that ever commanded a fleet. According to the panegyric of Cicero, the great orator, he achieved a triumph rarely, if ever, equalled, never surpassed: "Pompey made his preparations for the war at the end of the winter, entered upon it at the beginning of spring, and finished it in the middle of summer."

A grimly droll adventure of Cæsar, contemporary of Pompey, with the pirates, is worth narrating, although in this place inverted as regards chronological order.

Sylla, master of Rome, jealous of his growing influence, desired to "remove" Cæsar; who, hearing of this, concealed himself, and for a considerable time kept out of the way, in the country of the Sabines, often changing his quarters, till one night, as he was removing from one house to another, he fell into the hands of Sylla's soldiers. By a bribe of two talents, he prevailed with Cornelius, their captain, to release him. He at once put to sea, and made for Bithynia; returning, he was captured near the island Pharmacusa by some of the pirates. A strange account, worth quoting, though not very reliable,

is given of his adventures. When, it says, the pirates demanded twenty talents for his ransom, he laughed at their ignorance, and at the idea of his being let off so cheaply. He was disgusted at their making so little of



JULIUS CÆSAR.

him, and voluntarily engaged to give them fifty talents. He despatched some of his attendants to different quarters to raise the money, and was soon left to the mercy of the ruffians; they were the most truculent, bloodthirsty villains to be met with in the world at that time. He

treated them with jaunty, undisguised contempt, and used them for his amusement. He seemed to command their unconscious homage; it never occurred to them for a moment to contest his right to rule and order them about. When the captive had a mind to sleep, he sent his attendants—he had only two left with him, and a friend—to his captors with orders to make no noise. The prisoner enjoyed as much liberty of action as was possible, excepting only any attempt at escape. For thirty-eight days he amused himself amongst them, joining, for his own pleasure, in their exercises and games, as if he had been condescending to associate with his vassals, not his keepers. He wrote verses and speeches, and declaimed them in their hearing; his stolid auditors frequently failed to admire or applaud, and Cæsar, who loved approbation, rated them roundly and contemptuously as barbarous illiterates. The savages were greatly tickled with his off-hand, haughty audacity, which they attributed to inexperience and youthful buoyancy of spirit. As soon as the ransom came, which it did from Miletus, he paid it, and took his discharge. Speedily after his escape, he found means to man and equip a small fleet, with which he went in pursuit of his late captors, the Cilician pirates. They still remained with their ships at the island in which Cæsar had been held prisoner. Unprepared for the vigorous and rapid attack, the pirates fell into their late prisoner's hands

The money, including his own fifty talents' ransom, that he took from them, he appropriated for the use of himself and the commonwealth; the pirates he sent on to be imprisoned at Pergamus, with a request to Junius, then governor of Asia, to whose office it belonged as prætor, to determine their punishment. Junius had probably a desire for a share of the money that had been taken from the pirates,—the amount was large,—and gave the temporising answer that he would decide at his leisure what should be done with the prisoners. Shilly-shallying was never Cæsar's way, even from his boyhood. He at once ignored Junius, and returned to Pergamus, where he ordered the guard to bring forth the pirates and crucify them—which was done. When Cæsar was in the hands and power of the pirates in Pharmacusa, he had dared to threaten them with execution because they did not cheer his oratory. They thought he was in fun, and considered the threat a good joke. If they had known who he was, and could have imagined that he ever would have the power to carry out his threat, they would have taken measures to prevent his returning, after they had got his ransom.

# ALFRED THE GREAT.



## CHAPTER V.

### FOUNDATION OF THE BRITISH NAVY.

OUR ancestors in the British Islands were not addicted to going down to the sea in ships; they had no movements upon the waters that could be properly described as Naval Affairs. Until after the Norman Conquest no record was preserved of the maritime performances of the ancient Britons, excepting the vague and fragmentary Saxon Chronicle, which furnishes material for only a brief and incomplete outline.

Prior to the invasion of England by Julius Cæsar and the commencement of the Christian era, the British Islands were, for the greater part, peopled by Celts, who were not a sea-going race. Some of the southern counties, it is true, were inhabited by the Belgæ, a fierce and warlike tribe, immigrants from the continent of Europe, with which, it is believed, they maintained con-



nection, and were hence mariners in a degree. It is, however, to the invaders of later ages, the Danes,



ALFRED THE GREAT.

"Norwegians," Angles, and Saxons, especially the last-named, that the Anglo-Saxons of more modern times are

indebted for the maritime spirit, colonial enterprise, and power that distinguishes the race.

At an early period the Saxons were a comparatively insignificant race, inhabiting lands on the north side of the Elbe, on the neck of the Cimbric Chersonesus, and three small islands at the mouth of the river. In process of time they became a great confederation, that extended, when at its height, from the Elbe to the Rhine. At this period, and for a long time after their settlement in Britain, the Saxons were heathens, much addicted to war, and more inclined to plundering others than living by their own labour. They had reached a partially settled condition when they forced themselves upon the attention of the Romans. Their native restlessness and predatory activity made them a terror to the dwellers in the regions nearest to them, and even to the inhabitants of distant countries, no matter who their rulers might be. They eluded, in their small craft, the ponderous fleets of veteran Rome, and ravaged the coasts of the imperial power with irresistible fury, which made them a scourge and a terror to the western sea-board, and even to the interior of the countries that excited their cupidity. After the decline and fall of the Romans as masters of the world, these same Saxon marauders were a trouble to Charlemagne, the great emperor of the West, of whom it is said that he wept, not from fear, but from anger and vexation, when he saw the fleet of the Saxon savages in the

Mediterranean. Charlemagne proved sufficiently powerful, however, to arrest their progress when they seemed to have reached the high road to the conquest of all Germany.

These hardy, aquatic Ishmaels were heedless of danger, and set little value upon human life; they frequently embarked on their piratical expeditions in storm and tempest, when they were least likely to be expected by their intended victims. Their vessels were at first mere skiffs, with osier frames, covered with skins sewed together. Yet they knew something of boat-building, having acquired the art from the Romans; but they preferred their light vessels, for the advantages of being able to attack suddenly, and, if need required, to retreat rapidly. Such were the habits of the Saxons, till about the time usually assigned for the invasion of England by Hengist and Horsa. It was not till after a long and arduous struggle that the Saxon invaders obtained a permanent settlement in England.

The Angles from Sleswick followed the Saxons in the invasion of England, and although the later comers were less numerous and less powerful than the earlier invaders, they have taken precedence in the designation of the people—the Anglo-Saxons, and have given its name to the country—Anglia, or England.

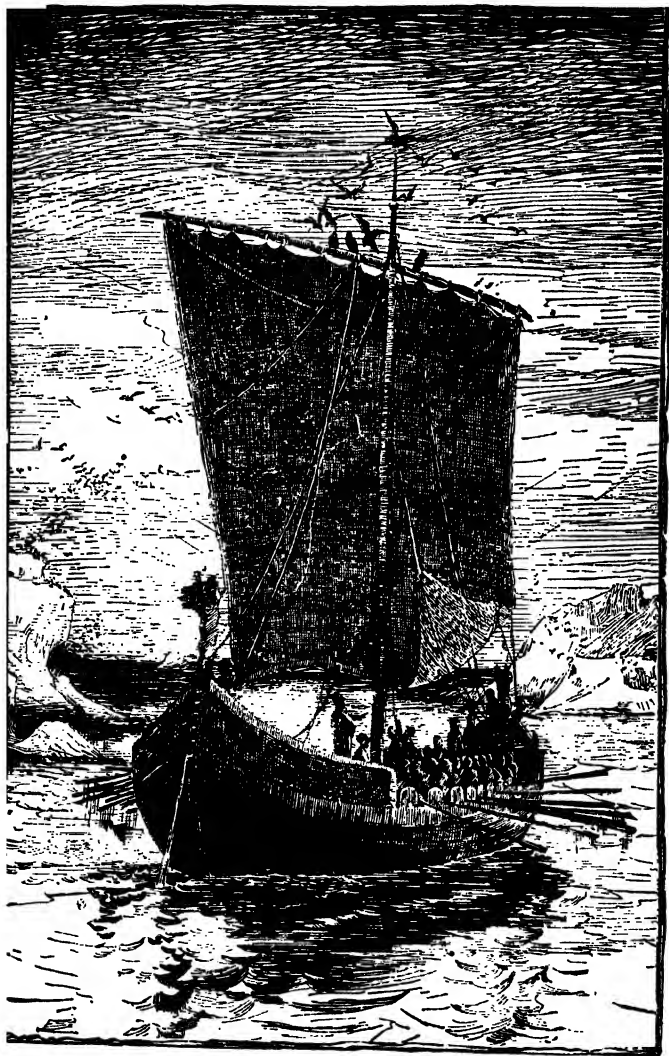
Although heathen barbarians when they landed in England, and for long afterwards, the Saxons and the

Angles were superior in intelligence and resources to the Britons whom they subdued. They infused fresh life and vigour into the native population, and, savage though they were, had ideas of morals, and government, capable of founding a better and freer state of society than any to which even the Romans had ever attained.

The power of the Norsemen, up to the ninth and tenth centuries, was mainly owing to their maritime superiority ; they had made great advances in the art of ship-building and other constructive operations. The skill required for building and fitting out fleets, and navigating them through the storms and currents of the Northern seas, evinced very considerable progress in the arts of civilisation. Ferocious and sanguinary they were, yet these roving pirates, who landed on the coasts of England and France, must have been far in advance of the barbarous hordes which, in the decline of the Roman power in the West, migrated in successive swarms from the deserts of Central Europe, and threw themselves, after long marches, on the frontiers of the more civilised states. For such enterprises brute courage alone was wanted ; no preparations were necessary ; the nomad tribes found subsistence in pasture and plunder as they moved onward. The invasions of the Norsemen required higher capabilities. Art and skill were required in constructing and providing the framework, cordage, sails, and iron-work of their ships, and in provisioning, arming,

and equipping fleets capable of transporting large bodies of men even to the shores of countries so near as England and France. Squadrons of these Norsemen, later comers, included vessels of large burthen and dimensions; they had advanced from the osier skiffs to building and equipping stout sea-going ships. These bold navigators, it may be mentioned, were the discoverers of Iceland, and later of Greenland, and some parts of the northern coasts of America. Plunder and conquest were not always their exclusive or paramount objects, and some of the countries they colonised were quite as much benefited by their settlement as they were themselves. Ruthless were the contests which preceded and accompanied these free and independent settlers on their first regular immigration; none the less they added to the strength and resources of the people with whom they mingled. They brought with them an aptitude for civilisation, and many of its elements, and they have left to posterity indelible marks of their free spirit, their intelligence, and their industry.

The numerous invasions from the time of Julius Cæsar may be thus briefly summarised. Cæsar's first and unsuccessful invasion, B.C. 55, was made with 80 ships; in the following year he brought an army of 32,000 warriors in 800 transports. Passing over the history of the Roman occupation, we come to the invasion by the Angles, under Hengist and Horsa, in the year 448, in



A SHIP OF THE "NORSEMEN."

three "long ships," or "ceols." Ella and his three sons made their invasion in the year 477 with three ships; two leaders, Cerdic, and Cynric, and his son, came in the year 495 with five ships. Porta and his two sons made an incursion at Portsmouth in the year 501 with two ships: there they slew a young noble of the Britons. The West Saxons invaded England in the year 514 with three ships. The Norsemen from Hærethra land, said to be with the first Danish ships that came to England, arrived in the year 787 with three ships, the crews of which killed the king's reeve. In the year 794 the Norsemen, or "heathens," as they are designated by an ancient writer, after ravaging several parts of Northumberland, and plundering a monastery at the mouth of the Don, lost some of their vessels by shipwreck. In the year 833 a Danish and Norwegian fleet invaded the south coast of England. About the year 835, King Egbert was defeated in a sanguinary battle at Charmouth by a fleet of thirty-five Danish ships. The Danes were an intermittent pest to the inhabitants of the southern portion of England for many years, and there were numerous conflicts with them on both sea and land. The first really capable defender of the country whom the Danes had to encounter was Alfred the Great, born in 849. In the year 851, according to Asser, "the pagans first wintered in the island of Sheppey, which means the Sheep-isle, and is situate in the river Thames, between

Essex and Kent; . . . it has in it a fine monastery [minster]. The same year, also, a great army of the pagans came with three hundred and fifty ships to the mouth of the river Thames, and sacked Durovernum [Canterbury], which is the city of the Cantuarians, and also the city of London, which lies on the north bank of the river Thames, on the confines of Essex and Middlesex, but yet that city in truth belongs to Essex; and they put to flight Britwulf, King of Mercia, with all the army he had led out to oppose them. Huntingdon says of Britwulf that he 'never afterwards throve again.' After these things the same army of pagans went into Surrey, which is a district situated on the south bank of the river Thames, and on the west of Kent. And Æthelwulf, King of the Saxons, and his son Æthelbald, with all their army, fought against them at a place called Ocley, *i.e.* the Oak-plain, and there, after a lengthened battle, which was fought with much bravery on both sides, the greater part of the pagan multitude was destroyed and cut to pieces, so that we never heard of their being so slaughtered, either before or since in any country, in one day; and the Christians gained an honourable victory, and were triumphant over the place of death."

In the same year, Æthelstan, King of Kent, and Earl Ealchere slew a large army of the pagans at Sandwich, and took nine ships of their fleet; the others escaped by



flight. (Huntingdon refers to this action as "a great naval battle against the Danes.")

Æthelbald died A.D. 860, and was succeeded by Æthelbryht, who joined Kent, Surrey, and Sussex to his dominion. "In his days a large army of pagans came up from the sea, and destroyed the city of Winchester. As they were returning, laden with their booty, to their ships, Osric, Earl of Hampton, with his men, and Earl Æthelwulf, with the men of Berkshire, confronted them bravely. A severe battle took place, and the pagans were slain on every side ; and, unable to resist, they took flight like women, and the Christians were masters of the place of death." So says old Asser.

In the year 865 the pagans again wintered in the Isle of Thanet, and made a treaty with the men of Kent, who promised them money for adhering to their covenant ; but the pagans, like cunning foxes, burst from their camp by night, and, setting at naught their engagements, and spurning at the promised money, which they knew was less than they could get by plunder, they ravaged all the eastern coast of Kent.

Again, in 866, a large fleet of pagans arrived from Denmark, and wintered in East Anglia, and there they became principally an army of cavalry. In this year, Alfred being in his eighteenth year, the government of the kingdom was undertaken by Æthered, his brother. In the following year the pagans proceeded northwards

to York. For several years following the Danes gave much trouble to the inhabitants of Northumbria and also of East Anglia, and of the West Saxon kingdom. In 871, Alfred succeeded Æthered as King of Wessex. In this year eight severe battles were fought between the Saxons and the invading Danes. The young King Alfred was, as already stated, the most able defender of the country the Danish invaders had ever had to encounter, especially in sea fights. To Alfred may be truthfully attributed the foundation of the British Navy as a power for attack and defence.

Alfred, son of Æthelwulf, King of Wessex, was born, as stated, in the year 849, at Wanting, Berkshire. His brothers, Æthelbald, Æthelbryht, and Æthered, had each in succession reigned before him, after the death of Æthelwulf their father. Alfred commenced his reign in the year 871, when he was twenty-two years of age.

The young king had a heavy load laid upon him, a great work to undertake, under the most trying and depressing conditions. The Danes were to a large extent in possession. His subjects were impoverished by their rapacious invaders, and by exactions necessarily imposed for defence by their own rulers. Continued defeats had quenched their spirit and their hopes, and reduced them to a state of listless indifference. Alfred set himself the task of arousing their spirits, of inspiring them with patriotism and confidence in each

other, and of rallying them to their utmost efforts for the security of their homes, and the achievement and maintenance of their liberties. Alfred's high patriotic aims



ALFRED'S JEWEL, ASHMOLEAN MUSEUM, OXFORD.

This interesting relic, an ornament of gold, intended to be hung round the neck, was found near Athelney, in Somersetshire. The jewel contains an effigy, surrounded by an inscription, "AELFRED ME HAET GEWROCAN" (Alfred had me wrought).

were the encouragement of learning, the promotion of science, the establishment of wise and just government

and legislation, and the security of his people and dominions against foreign invasion. He was largely successful in the attainment of these noble aspirations.

From his earliest years Alfred gave excellent promise of goodness and greatness in maturity, in the event of his attaining it with health, strength, and soundness of mind. With courage and patience, wisdom and understanding, he was highly endowed, but the blessings of health were denied to him. He was tormented throughout the whole of his heroic life with an internal malady, that caused almost incessant distracting pain.

At six years of age, so precocious was Alfred, that he gained a prize of an illuminated collection of Saxon ballads, for the rapidity with which he committed the ballads to memory, and the correctness with which he recited them. His father took him to Rome, where he remained for a year pursuing his studies. On his return at the age of seventeen, he took part, and acquitted himself gallantly, in a battle with the Danes.

The young king was at first unpopular ; as a patriot and reformer, he was too far in advance of his people. In his impatience for reform and the subjugation of the Danes, he forgot the impoverishment of his people, and their inability to supply the sinews of war. They were also, from the hardships involved in their ever-recurring conflicts with the Danes, cowed in spirit as well as poor in purse ; the heart had been taken almost quite out of

them. And so it befel that when Guthrum, a turbulent Danish chief, made a descent upon Wareham in Dorsetshire, and only a small number of followers could be got to rally round Alfred's banner, the Danes were victorious; they took Exeter, and carried all before them. The young king, having no support, had to retire, defeated and for the present helpless, into privacy. There was little of pomp, pageantry, or luxurious living in the lot of a king in those early days, but such as his state and condition were, had to be surrendered—the royal toga had to be succeeded by the peasant's frock; the court and camp by the lowly cottage, even a hiding-place in the wild wood; court dainties by coarse fare, and even that uncertain. The Danes were in possession of Exeter, and overran a considerable portion of the country inland and to east and west of that port. The fugitive king found a hiding-place at Athelney, or the "Isle of Nobles," in the beautiful vale of Taunton, Somersetshire. Here he lived during the winter of 877-78, the pike and trout caught in the neighbourhood being staple items in his dietary. He wandered about, sad and disconsolate, resting occasionally in any lowly hut open to him for shelter. In one of these peasant's huts the good-wife gave him orders to attend to the cakes while baking. Thinking more about the Danes than the cakes, he allowed them to burn, which so enraged his hostess that she gave him a sound box on the ear, and taunted him with his laziness

in watching cakes baking, and his alacrity in cake eating. Poor King Alfred had more bitter things to bear than the woman's wrath, which he regarded with philosophical patience.

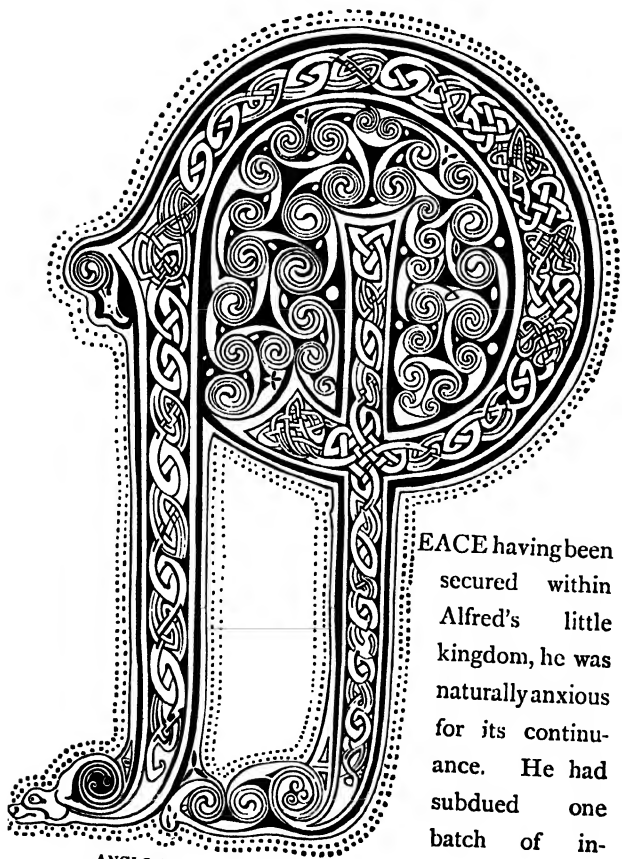
Few of his adherents knew whither he had gone, but many of the best men of Wessex held him in loving memory. They rejoiced to find out that he was still amongst them, "biding his time" to strike a blow against the enemy. Gradually a band of brave young Saxons gathered around him in his island camp. When the time had come, as was thought, for action, Alfred, in the spring of 878, marched with his gallant band for a meeting with the redoubtable Guthrum and his crew. The Abbot of Croyland gives a picturesque account of Alfred's manner of reconnoitring the enemy, who occupied an oval camp on Bratton Hill, Wiltshire. Disguised as a troubadour, with an attendant carrying his harp, Alfred entered the enemy's camp as they were revelling, and was conducted, with noisy joy and without suspicion, to Guthrum's tent. Alfred, welcomed as an opportune helper of the revels, sang song after song, accompanying himself with excellent effect upon the harp. As he sang and played he observed keenly all he saw about him, and made copious mental notes for future guidance. The revels were prolonged till a late hour; and after a while, when silence reigned throughout the camp, Alfred stole away to the forest, to prepare his

men for action. The Danes having partly slept off the effects of the mead that had flowed so freely overnight, in the morning descended to the village at the foot of the hill, to amuse themselves. Alfred led his Saxons in a spirited attack upon the Danes, who at first laughed at the foolish temerity of their contemptible assailants. The hand-to-hand fight lasted nearly the whole day. Towards sunset the Danes gave way, and sought refuge in their camp, which was strongly entrenched within deep ditches and high banks. The besieged Danes, cut off from their base of operations at Exeter, and from supplies from anywhere, were starved into submission, and humbly petitioned for peace. Alfred consented, on condition that Guthrum and thirty of his chiefs should be baptized into the Christian Church, and that the whole of the Danes should limit their residence to the district lying to the east of the Roman road from London to Chester, known as the Danelagh, which corresponded nearly to the kingdom of East Anglia. The Danes, humbled by their defeat, and tired of war, as they well might be, settled down quietly as husbandmen. Alfred stood sponsor to Guthrum, to whom the Saxon name of Æthelstan was given in baptism.

# ALFRED THE GREAT.

## CHAPTER VI.

### HIS FLEET OF FIGHTING VESSELS.



EACE having been secured within Alfred's little kingdom, he was naturally anxious for its continuance. He had subdued one batch of in-



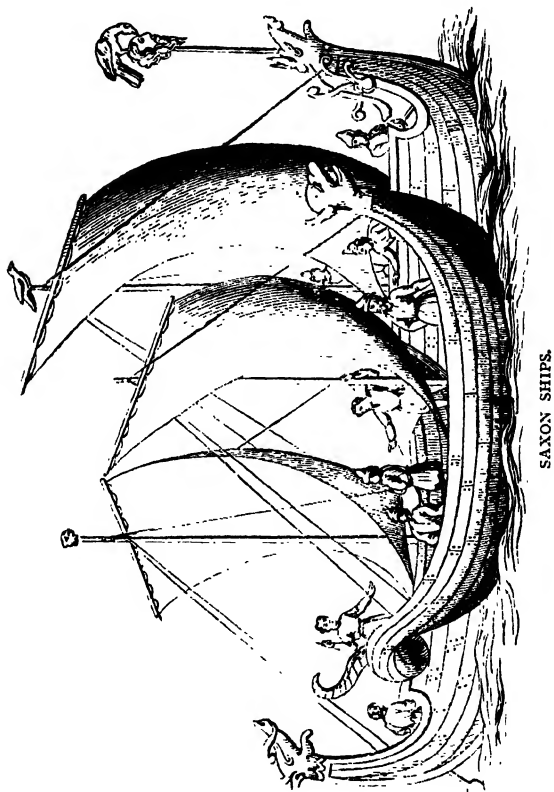
vaders, but there were more where these came from, and with wise forethought he prepared for their reception, and determined to be ready to try conclusions with them before they had the chance of erecting entrenched camps on British soil. He prepared himself to meet the unwelcome visitors at sea, and to provide a navy for the protection of his kingdom. This he accomplished with characteristic judgment and success. He provided, as rapidly as his limited means permitted, a fleet of fighting vessels, larger, swifter, and more handy to manage than those of his adversaries. They were built of seasoned materials, and manned by the most expert seamen he could collect, both English and foreign. The Danes, long practised and experienced in naval expeditions, were astonished and confounded to find on their favourite element one that was more than a match for them. Alfred, who had only recently become formidable on land, was already their master at sea. They were enraged and amazed by the defeat inflicted upon them by squadrons not exceeding half of their own numbers; they were reduced to a state of helpless non-resistance by the superior manœuvring capabilities of Alfred's ships, that sailed round about the Danes, or bore down upon them with irresistible impetuosity—in a word, did what they liked with them.

Concerning Alfred's triumphs as a marine architect, a modern historian (Dr. Collier) has grandly said that

“his fleet was enlarged, and his ships built and modelled after the grace and symmetry of the salmon ; they cut the English seas at a rate of swiftness which the flat-bottomed boats that bore the Norsemen could not attain. The name of this West Saxon king began to be heard in the great centres of the world. In Rome, in Constantinople, in Bagdad, his praise was on priestly and princely lips. Even under the cocoa palms of the Coromandel coast in India, an envoy from the coast of Wessex appeared, in his strange English dress, among the turbaned Nestorian Christians, to present costly gifts from King Alfred to the shrine of St. Thomas.”

Alfred had not to wait long after his victory over the Danes at Bratton Hill for an opportunity of testing the capabilities of his new fleet. An enormous force of fighting men—pagan Danes—arrived in 120 ships, for the assistance of their countrymen, and to do plundering on their own account. Alfred boldly attacked them. The tempestuous weather assisted him ; nearly the whole of the Danish ships were sunk or wrecked, and a great number of the invaders were drowned off the Isle of Purbeck. Another party of Danes, under Ingvar and Halfdene, who had come after a visit to the coasts of Wales, arrived off the coast of Devon. They were attacked and utterly defeated by Alfred's squadron. Again, in 879, a large army of Danes arrived in the Thames for the reinforcement of their countrymen

who had preceded them. They wintered at Fulham, and it would seem became settlers. In the following



years, from 880, the Danes directed their attention to the continent; a large number of them sailed up

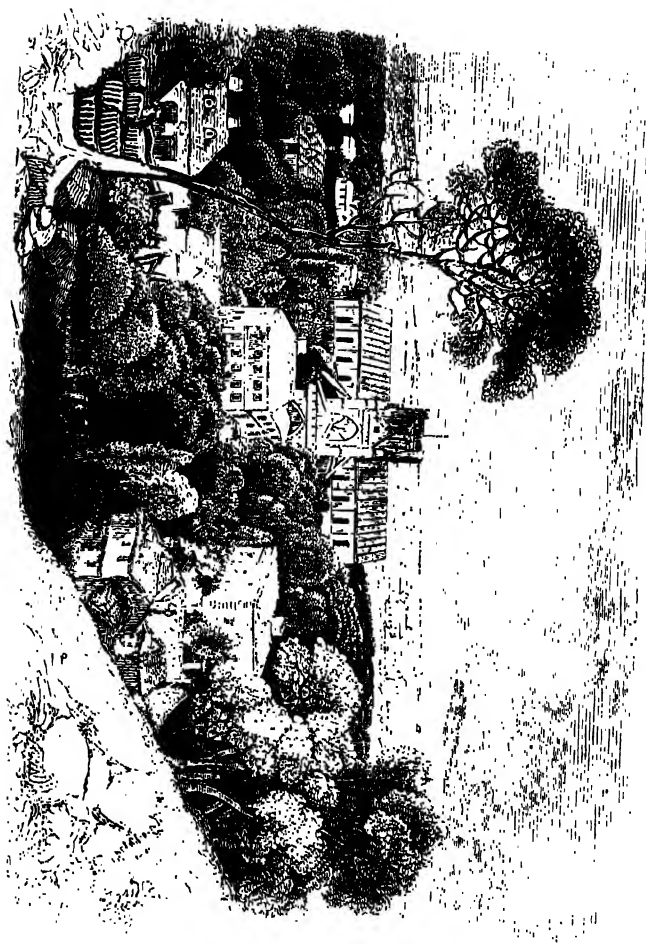
the river Meuse in their war galleys, and collected as much plunder as they could get. Alfred, in 883, when he had reached his thirty-fourth year, had sufficient confidence in his fleet to turn the tables and assume the offensive against the Danes, and challenged them to battle at sea. He captured two of their ships, slew the commanders of the others, and so completely vanquished the Danes that the whole of the crews laid down their arms, and made their submission to him as victor and king.

In 884 an army of Danes again returned to harass Kent, while another piratical gang paid a buccaneering visit to France. In 885 the Danes besieged Rochester, but on the approach of Alfred to its relief they raised the siege and returned to their ships. For a number of years the Danes arrived in greater or less force, keeping up the distracting and unsettled condition of the country. In the year 890, Guthrum, the Danish king of East Anglia—the Danelagh—died. He was the first Danish or Northern king who reigned among the East Angles after King Eadmond. He had been fairly faithful to the terms of his treaty of Wedmor, made with King Alfred after his defeat at Bratton Hill in 878. He divided and tilled the land, and led to the country being inhabited and at least partially settled. In 891 the great army of Danes that had invaded France as far to the south-east as Yonne,

marched back westward to Boulogne. In 893 the Danes again invaded Kent from Boulogne in a fleet of 250 (Asser has it 350) ships, that brought up at Port Limen or Limne, at the mouth of the river of that name, which then flowed—it does not exist now—from the westward through the great wood Andreadesweald—the weald of Kent. Not far from the river they built a strong fortress at Apuldre, now Appledore, near the northern boundary of Romney Marshes, about ten miles to the north of Dungeness. The great wood just referred to was about 120 miles long by about 30 miles broad. In the same year, Hasten, or Haesten, another Northern pagan,—a terrible fellow,—arrived in the Thames with about eighty ships, and a large army of fighting men. He and his band of marauders built a strong fortress at Midaltun, now Milton, near Gravesend. He was joined by the Danes of Northumbria and East Anglia. They ravaged the southern districts, and gave full occupation to the commanders of both the West Saxons and the Western Angles. Alfred defended the country with great skill and bravery. He inflicted a crushing defeat upon the enemy at Farnham, Surrey, from which a number of them escaped across the Thames into Essex; others marched westwards to Montgomeryshire, where they were defeated at Buttington, by forces led by three of Alfred's Eoldermen; but the Danes were almost ubiquitous, and irrepressible.

A number of them reached Chester, went thence to Wales, which they plundered, and again returned to Essex by way of Northumbria and East Anglia. They made piratical cruises round the coasts; but Alfred had prepared for them—they recoiled from his fortified towns and strong places. They achieved no victories in the field, and when defeated retreated to their ships or to their strongly entrenched camps, from which they made raids as pirates and bandits, as opportunity served. They erected an extraordinarily strong fortress at Ware, on the river Lea, and held this position during the summer of 896. The garrison watched with lively interest and pleasing anticipation the grain crops in the neighbourhood of the fortress whitening to the harvest, and were perhaps naturally a little impatient to have them gathered and stored in the fortress barns. But the arrangement required something beyond their reach—a permit from King Alfred to cut and garner the crop. The labour of the Danes in cutting the crops was declined without thanks; Alfred sent his own men to cut the crops, and, to prevent unpleasantness from the Danes attempting to participate in the harvesting operations, he sent a sufficiently large force, armed with more formidable weapons than sickles, to protect the reapers at work. The Danes had the mortification of seeing the fields cleared to the last sheaf, and could only glare at the harvest gatherers from behind their strong

defences with baffled rage and mortification. With this hoped-for supply snatched away, and with no accessible market for provisions, the Danes concluded that they would do well to depart. Alas, for the foiled buccaneers ! they needed Alfred's permit for this operation also. They had always felt themselves safe while they had their ships as a ready means of escape from the vengeance they provoked by their rapacity. King Alfred had defeated them on sea and land ; he had carried off the crops they were waiting for from under their eyes,—“there are other ways of killing a cat besides hanging it,”—and he was about to show the Danes that there were other ways of defeating an enemy besides killing him outright. To his other accomplishments Alfred added that of civil engineer. He directed deep channels to be cut on each side of the river, that carried off its water, and left the Danish fleet stranded on the mud of the river-bed. Circumvented in all directions, the valiant Hæsten, who has been distinguished by the proud title of “prince of pirates,” with as many of his men as could accompany or follow him, ignominiously fled westwards towards the Severn, on the banks of which they spent a miserable winter. In the following spring, with the help of their kinsmen, who in pity gave or lent to them a number of more or less crazy vessels, which they patched up as well as they could, Hæsten and the remnant of his freebooters,







having caused much loss to others, and gained nothing for themselves, sailed away, thoroughly discomfited and deeply disgraced.

After the departure of Haesten, the country enjoyed comparative peace for a few years. It was well it should be so; the illustrious career of the heroic, enlightened, unweariedly active, though much suffering King Alfred, was drawing to a close. Although he had been ill, and a great sufferer for the whole course of his busy life,—and it may be said that no sovereign has left a better record, for the quantity and quality of the service rendered to his country,—the end was sudden at the last. He passed away on the 29th October 901, his death causing the deepest sorrow among all classes of the people he had loved so well, for whom, in token of his love, he had given abundant evidence in the devotion of his life. He was buried in Winchester Church, one of the many sacred edifices that had been erected or restored during his memorable and beneficent reign.

A record of the piratical incursions of the Danes, and the vigour and skill with which King Alfred encountered these foes, can convey no idea of the height and depth and breadth of his powers, of the excellence of his character, the magnitude and importance of his works; of the innate light in him that diffused light among others, of the native power in him that generated power among his people. In morals, intellectual power, prescient

wisdom, and patriotic ambition, Alfred was a Colossus among the wisest and most powerful men of his age. It is impossible in our time to realise the height to which he rose above the circumstances, influences, and environments amongst which he lived, or to make an accurate and worthy *precis* of these, and of his life, character, and history. Attempting to sketch only the high lights of the field, the salient points that help us to an apprehension of Alfred's history and character, a prominent place should be given to the value he set upon time as "the stuff that life is made of," as an estate worth nothing without cultivation, as a treasure of which no fragment should be wasted. There were no watches or time measurers of any other kind in existence in his day, excepting, perhaps, the sundial, at uncertain, unequal, intermittent intervals. King Alfred was his own clock-maker. He appreciated, as all successful workers do, the value of method, and, as far as the turbulent Danes and other disturbing influences would permit, he had "for everything a season, and a time for every purpose." He aimed at methodical apportionment of his time, differing considerably in its proportions from the workman's aspiration, "eight hours' work, eight hours' play, eight hours' sleep, and eight shillings a day." King Alfred considered eight hours sufficient, we believe, for sleep and recreation; the other sixteen hours, when circumstances permitted, were devoted one moiety to the service

of the State and the discharge of public duty, the other to study and pious exercises. His time measurers, which preceded water-clocks, were accurately made tallow candles—whether “dips” or “moulds” is not recorded. They were burned in horn lanterns, to shade them from draughts, and were so exactly made and marked as to record the pace of passing time.

Great projects as well as multifarious important details of business crowded the hours he was able to devote to them. During about fifteen years from the time that Guthrum was settled in East Anglia, the country enjoyed comparative tranquillity, which allowed Alfred to direct his attention to the internal affairs of the kingdom. He set to work with energy to put the country in a complete state of defence. Old fortifications were repaired, and new strong defences erected; he promoted with vigour and zeal the restoration of towns, churches, and monasteries. He suppressed the bands of robbers that infested the country, and established a wise, firm, and impartial administration of justice, improved the laws, and provided for their being obeyed, severely punishing perversion or failure to enforce the law on the part of judges. He greatly encouraged commerce, and manifested a lively interest in geographical discovery. In evidence of this he sent out explorers on voyages of discovery,—Ohter round the North Cape into the White Sea, and Wulfstan to the Baltic,—and himself wrote an account of their

voyages. He also wrote the best account of any that has appeared of Germany in the ninth century. His devotion to learning, and his interest and exertions to promote education, were distinguishing features in his character. When he commenced his reign, so dense and prevalent was popular ignorance, that scarcely any one, priest or layman, understood the ritual of the Church, or was capable of translating a sentence of Latin into Saxon. Alfred held strongly, in the ninth century, the importance of a public duty, that it has been impossible to carry into practical effect until the nineteenth—that every free-born youth should be enabled to read English correctly. To promote this end, he repaired the monasteries, then the centres of education, which had been greatly injured by the wars, and did all he could to attract learned and able men to his country and his court. With the assistance of these learned men, he wrote a number of able works for the diffusion of knowledge among his people. The business of other kinds demanding his attention embraced conferences with carpenters, smiths, sailors, and others from such dockyards as he had; examination of models of ships; consideration of the sites and plans of towns, churches, castles, and fortresses; he had reports to receive from all parts of the country. Asser, who was favoured with the personal friendship of King Alfred, is diffuse and eloquent concerning his wonderful powers for work:

"From the twentieth year of his age to the present year, which is his forty-fifth, he has been constantly afflicted with most severe attacks of an unknown complaint, so that he has not a moment's ease, either from the suffering which it causes, or from the gloom which is thrown over him by the apprehension of its coming. Moreover, the constant invasions of foreign nations, by which he has been continually harassed by land and sea, without any interval of rest, have been a great cause of disquiet. What shall I say of the repeated expeditions against the pagans, his wars, and incessant occupations of government; of the daily embassies sent to him by foreign nations, from the Tyrrhenian Sea to the farthest end of Spain. For we have seen and read letters, accompanied with presents, which were sent to him by Abel, the patriarch of Jerusalem. What shall I say of the cities and towns he restored, and of others which he built where none had been before; of the royal halls and chambers, wonderfully erected at his command, of stone and wood; of the royal villas constructed of stone, removed from their old site, and handsomely built, by the king's command, in more fitting places? Besides the disease above mentioned, he was disturbed by the quarrels of his friends, who would voluntarily endure little or no toil, though it was for the common necessity of the kingdom; but he alone, sustained by the Divine aid, like a skilful pilot, strove to steer his ship, laden with

much wealth, into the safe and much desired harbour, though all his crew were tired. . . . For all his bishops, earls, nobles, favourite ministers, and prefects, who, next to God and the king, had the whole government of the kingdom, as is fitting, continually received from him instruction, respect, exhortation, and command ; at last, when they were disobedient, and his long patience was exhausted, he would reprove them severely, and censure their vulgar folly and obstinacy. In the midst of all his labour and care, Alfred found time to study the divine Scriptures, and to gather the flowers collected by certain masters, and to reduce them into the form of one book, as he was then able, until it became almost as large as a psalter. This book he called his companion, or manual, because he carefully kept it at hand day and night, and found, as he told me " (says Asser), " no small consolation therein."

The memory of Alfred has ever been gratefully cherished by his countrymen. There never, perhaps, was a monarch more highly or more deservedly esteemed. Time but adds to his renown ; and historians, with complete accord, pronounce him the wisest, best, and greatest king that ever reigned in England.

# THE DANISH KINGS.



## CHAPTER VII.

EDGAR, ETHELRED, CANUTE.

EDWARD the Elder, Æthelstan, Edmund, and Edwig, the successors of Alfred, were not negligent concerning the Navy, which continued to increase during their reigns, and was of great service in repelling the incursions of the Danes, the Scots, and the Irish, who were intermittent troublers and disturbers of the peace of the inhabitants of the southern part of England.

The Danes, who had obtained a footing in Northumbria, but did not settle, were also a cause of trouble. For a long period after the death of Alfred, internal disquietude and strife were continuous throughout the country.

Edgar, who was very young, ascended the throne in 959. He took great interest in maritime affairs, and added largely to the Navy. Preposterous accounts are



given by ancient writers of the number of ships he added to it,—that it consisted of from three thousand ships, according to one ; of such a vast number as four thousand eight hundred ships, according to another. Such numbers must be pronounced fabulous ; the resources of the country cannot have been capable of maintaining such a host of mariners as would be needed to man such fleets, even although consisting of comparatively small vessels. Whatever his naval power may have been, his fleet was divided into three squadrons, one of which was constantly stationed on the east coast, another on the west, and the third on the north coast. Once a year the king visited each of the three squadrons, and made a careful inspection of the entire coasts of his dominions, embracing also the coasts of Ireland, Scotland, and the Hebrides.

Edgar was able to preserve peace by showing such a formidable front. The Danes felt that invasion of the territories of a monarch so well prepared to resist them would be a hopeless risk and waste of life, and forbore from incurring the penalties that would be involved in an attack upon him. During his reign the Welsh made an incursion into his kingdom, but he completely defeated their attempts, and inflicted severe punishment upon those who had broken the peace and appropriated or destroyed the property of his subjects.

Edgar maintained tenaciously the dignity of his throne.

During his reign he held a court at Chester, at which eight feudatory princes were assembled. He placed them in a barge on the river Dee, four on each side, and



SHOWING THE COSTUME OF KING EDGAR, A SAXON LADY, AND A PAGE.

required them to do him homage by rowing, while he himself steered. They proceeded to the monastery of St. John, where the feudatories took the oath of fealty

to Edgar as their sovereign. These illustrious watermen included Kenneth III., King of Scotland; Malcolm, King of Northumberland; Macucius, King of the Isle of Man; and five petty kings of the Britons.

Edgar ruled for sixteen years; he maintained and promoted the prosperity of the kingdom in many respects, and might have been designated "the Great," but for his evil and uncontrolled passions, cruelty, and injustice.

Edward, son of Edgar, was only a child when he succeeded to the throne. He was barbarously murdered, after being nominally sovereign for three years, at the instigation of his stepmother Elfrida, to make room for her son Ethelred. In the third year of Ethelred's reign, a small Danish squadron pillaged Southampton and, a few years later, ravaged a long reach of the English coast. Ethelred and his mother, instead of bravely resisting the invaders, attempted to purchase peace by paying them a subsidy of ten thousand pounds, raised by an oppressive tax, known as the Danegeld. The cowardly payment only whetted the appetite of the invaders, and made them increase their exactions. Ethelred met their constantly increasing demands for more only by weak supplications, and exhausted the means of his subjects by a series of oppressive taxes, until they were driven to despair. A great council of the nation was held, and it was determined, instead of raising money, to bribe the Danes. Such money should

have been applied to providing a fleet to oppose them. But Ethelred was a weak, worthless creature, totally unfit to govern or command ; he was betrayed by his servants. A naval force was raised to fight, but Alfric, Duke of Mercia, sold the cause to the enemy, by not only giving them intelligence concerning intended movements, but by deserting to them with the squadron under his own command. Ethelred's revenge was in keeping with his despicable character—he put out the eyes of Alfric's son ! Notwithstanding this horrible incident, the weak Ethelred again gave Alfric his confidence—to be again betrayed by him to the enemy.

In 993, Unlaf, a fierce pirate, invaded the kingdom with a fleet of ninety-three ships, which sailed up the Thames for a long distance above London, wasting the country on both banks of the river. Unlaf returned with his forces to Kent, where an army was sent against them. The piratical force killed the general, and defeated and scattered his army. The Danes continued for many years to ravage numerous parts of the country, which lay at their mercy—if such a phrase can be used, for cruelty and violence were the predominant accompaniments of their visitations. They extorted immense sums from the wretched inhabitants, without abating the cruelty of their treatment. Again Ethelred displayed the abject meanness and heartlessness of his nature, by instigating his people, not to manly battle, but to secret

assassination. On the 13th November 1002, there was a general massacre of the Danes in all parts of the kingdom. Both sexes and all ages were slaughtered, the pusillanimous king taking part personally in this shedding of blood. The settled Danes, as well as the invaders, were, in many instances, slaughtered. The survivors, and their kinsmen at the homes they had left, were infuriated. Sweyn, King of Denmark, with a powerful host, promptly appeared on the English coast, thirsting for revenge. They desolated the coast from Norfolk round to Devonshire; towns were ablaze in all directions; the combined horrors of "war, pestilence, and famine" afflicted the people. The land suffered for years from savage violence and discord. Ethelred, utterly incapable, had destroyed his kingdom, and completely broken the spirit of his people; and Sweyn the Dane—almost any one—would be preferable to him as a ruler. The power of the Saxons had waned, and that of the Danes had grown greater. The Angles joined their forces to those of Sweyn, who, setting up his throne at Bath in the year 1013, proclaimed himself King of England. The cowardly Ethelred, deserting his people in their helplessness and sorrow, fled for refuge to Richard Duke of Normandy, whose sister Emma he had married.

Sweyn died in the year following his assumption of the royal dignity, and his son Canute assumed it in his stead. The Saxon nobles, not from attachment to Ethelred, but



UNLAF, WITH HIS DANES, LANDING IN THE THAMES.



from strong preference for a native king, invited the worthless king's return. Internecine strife was renewed. Ethelred died in 1016, and Edmund, surnamed Ironside, his son, was proclaimed. The Danes under Canute renewed their invasions, with continued success. Edric, the king's son-in-law, who had succeeded Alfric in the government of Mercia and the command of the army, by repeated treasons destroyed all the hopes derived from the intrepidity of Prince Edmund, a brave and capable man, but without the means necessary to contend with the power of Canute, with whom he found himself compelled to enter into an arrangement for the division of the kingdom, by which Edmund was to rule Wessex, and Canute to be sovereign of East Anglia, Mercia, and the North. Edmund was well worthy of a better fate than that which disgraced those concerned in it—he was murdered at Oxford in 1016 by his own chamberlains.

As regards the naval power of England, it thus appears that in little more than a century after the death of Alfred, the founder of the British Navy, and in forty years after the decease of Edgar, who had brought it to the highest state of efficiency, their successors lost the kingdom through neglect of its only effective defence—commanding power at sea.

Canute, cunning, ambitious, unscrupulous, established his power in England, and extended it abroad. He



was ready to resort to marriage, deception, or any means available that he considered fitted to serve his purpose. He married the old English Queen Emma, widow of Ethelred; he murdered Edwy, son of Ethelred, and removed the two little sons of Edmund Ironside to Norway. The pitiful Olaf removed the little boys, but not in the sense Canute intended; he sent them to Hungary, where one of them—Edward—lived to grow up, from whom afterwards descended Edgar Atheling; Margaret, who married Malcolm of Scotland; Matilda, who married Henry I. of England; and Maud, who married Geoffrey Plantagenet. Canute conquered Norway, and acquired partial dominion in Sweden. He died in the year 1035, and his triple kingdom fell to his three sons: Sweyn got Norway, Hardicanute got Denmark, and England fell to Harold Harefoot. Harold reigned for about four years, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, his half-brother, who, to the lively satisfaction of his subjects, had his career of violence and cruel tyranny—and the odious Danegeld tax that he had reimposed—cut short by his death in 1042, after a reign of only two years. Thus was turned aside, for the time, the Danish dynasty.

The period of the Danish usurpation of the English throne does not present any stirring events or distinguishing features in the history of the British Navy calling for elucidation or comment.

# THE DANISH KINGS.



## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE SUNSET OF SAXON GREATNESS.

A YOUNG Saxon, Godwin, once a captain in the Saxon fleet, afterwards a pirate on the high seas, and at last a cowherd, by rendering important service to a Norse chief, came into contact with Canute, and rose rapidly in his favour. He accompanied Canute to Sweden as commander of a Saxon contingent, and in a night attack upon the Swedes, rendered splendid service to his adopted king, averting from his army almost certain destruction. Canute rewarded the brave Saxon with the hand of his sister Githa in marriage, and with the earldoms of Kent and Wessex, which to Canute may have cost little, but to Godwin were worth much. Godwin was from that time an important factor in the settlement of the high affairs of State. His was one of the most influential and authoritative voices in the

Witan.<sup>1</sup> On the death of Hardicanute, Godwin might have seized the crown with the probability of being strong enough to retain it, had he been so minded. The monarchy in those days, as a rule,—subject to frequent and violent disturbance,—was both elective and hereditary. This seeming paradox is explained by the statement that the Witan exercised the prerogative of selecting, from a certain circle of personages of royal blood, the particular individual that should be raised to the throne when a vacancy occurred. Although Godwin had served under Canute the Dane, and owed his dignity to that ruler, he did not forget his own Saxon blood, and he decidedly preferred a native ruler to a Dane. His influence was employed with the Witan to elect Edward, son of Ethelred and Emma of Normandy, their sovereign. If Ethelred had been placed in the social state befitting his mean nature, he would have been a ceorl and not a king; and if his son, Edward the Confessor, had been put to the office that best suited him, he would have been made a monk, not a monarch. Edward succeeded to the throne in 1042. His character was weak, and his

<sup>1</sup> The Witenagemot, or Gemot of the Witan,—assembly of the wise men,—constituted the supreme court of the Anglo-Saxons. It was composed of the earls and prelates, and included some of the thanes and leading clergy. It was presided over by the king, and usually met at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. The Witan joined the king in making peace or war, in imposing taxes, enacting laws, raising forces, appointing prelates, and settling other important public affairs.



GODWIN AND THE DANE.



reign was much marred by domestic troubles, originating in the inordinate power of his nobles, whom he was not strong enough to control and keep in their proper position.

It must be said for the Confessor, however, that he had a due sense of the importance of the Navy, and with him and his reign are associated an important stage in its history—the establishment and incorporation of the Cinque Ports, which are referred to in another place as a source upon which, to a certain extent, reliance could be placed for a supply of ships and men in time of war.

Godwin and the king became hostile to each other. Edward was charged with giving too much encouragement to foreigners; he had been brought up, it will be remembered, in Normandy. William of Normandy was secretly invited to England by the Confessor to help him against Godwin, who with all his family was outlawed. Godwin, accompanied by his sons from Ireland, soon returned in triumph to the land he loved so well. He sailed up the Thames to London Bridge, which was purposely left unguarded by the citizens. In sight of the royal fleet he landed his men upon the Surrey side. A panic struck through Edward's Norman court, as the bold Saxon earl re-entered London, amid the jubilant rejoicings of the whole city. Many of the Normans whom Edward had admitted to posts of high honour and profit

fled. The king, unable to withstand him, formed a hollow friendship with Godwin, whose end, however, was at



CORONATION OF HAROLD, FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY.

hand. Soon after landing his health began to fail. It was suspected that he was poisoned. He died at Winchester, 18th April 1053. It has been said of him

that—"Brave, eloquent, and patriotic, he stands out, in these sunset days of Saxon greatness, like a giant amid a crowd of mean and vicious dwarfs. He committed crimes, no doubt, for it was an age of crime; but his unshaken loyalty to the house of Cerdic would cover deeper stains than any that attach to his name." His brave spirit was inherited by Harold the Dauntless, his second son.

The dawdling reign of the Confessor lasted for thirteen years after the death of Godwin. Feuds greatly disturbed parts of the kingdom, but they did not much disturb or interest him. He idled his time among monks, or amused himself in woods or meadows with hounds or hawks, and showed but little of kingly spirit or dignity. He died on the 15th January 1066.

Harold II. had been looked to hopefully as the coming king. The Southern Witan at once, on the death of the Confessor, proclaimed Harold King of England. •Edgar Atheling, grandson of the exiled Ironside, who, with his two sisters, had been brought from Hungary by the Confessor, was in the country, and had the first legal claim. The Confessor, it has been stated, had the presumption to bequeath his crown to William of Normandy, but the popular voice rejected both Edgar and the Norman, and declared for Harold with zeal and unanimity. William was known to be a competitor for the crown. To weaken Harold as much as possible, he



conspired with Tostig, Harold's banished brother, to take action against Harold. Tostig dropped his ignoble occupation of piracy on the English coasts, to execute this more dishonourable and unnatural commission. Joining forces with Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, he invaded England with a fleet said to have consisted of three ships, fully manned with fighting men. They sailed up the Ouse, and took possession of York. Harold proceeded northwards to dislodge the invaders, and came up with them at Stamford Bridge, on the river Derwent. The invaders occupied a strong position. The battle began at dawn on the 25th September. Harold and his horsemen charged the crescent into which the Norsemen had formed: for a long time the line remained unbroken. Again and again the dauntless Harold and his troopers dashed up, and at last pierced the line, and had the foe at their mercy. The Norsemen had left their breastplates in camp, because of the oppressive heat, and fell the more readily before the steel of Harold's army. Harold had tauntingly promised Hardrada seven feet of English estate, which the royal Norseman duly received. Tostig, the traitor son of Godwin, and brother of Harold, fell on the field of battle. Harold's victory was complete.

Harold was equally successful against the Norwegians at sea, where his admiral fell in with the fleet of the

enemy, under the command of Olaf, son of Hardrada. Olaf was glad to purchase his safety by the surrender of a large amount of treasure, and of his whole fleet, excepting as many vessels as were needed to carry home the remnant of his discomfited followers.



# THE NORMAN CONQUEST.



## CHAPTER IX.

### THE NORMAN LANDING.

WHILE Harold the Dauntless was gallantly engaged in crushing the army of Hardrada and his own infamous brother Tostig in the North, which he accomplished with complete success, William, the astute, ambitious Norman, was preparing to make, under the most favourable circumstances for himself, the next move in one of the most vitally momentous campaigns recorded in the annals of warfare. Purposing the invasion of England, he planned arrangements to secure an unopposed landing. His plan had succeeded; things had befallen as he had designed and desired that they should. Harold had been drawn off to Yorkshire; although he had been victorious, his victory had been purchased at heavy cost, he had lost a large number of his best men; all the fighting men

HASTINGS FROM FAIRLIGHT DOWN.





that could be got together were with him. The enormous flotilla of the Norman's transports approached the Kentish coast, ran their prows into the sand in Pevensey Bay, without a hand being uplifted to hinder, without the sign of opposition either at sea or on land. On the 29th September 1066, four days after Harold had achieved his splendid victory, two hundred miles away, the "Conqueror" arrived with his army of sixty thousand fighting men upon the defenceless coast of Sussex.

They were a very mixed company that "came over with the Conqueror." Doubtless there were knights and nobles and persons of high degree, and possibly of fair moral character amongst them, but there was also a considerable admixture of beggared barons and brigands, lawless adventurers, varlets, and vagrants from all parts. Unless those whose ancestors "came over with William" can back their boast by a fair ninth century pedigree, they would show wise discretion by saying nothing about the "coming over." The motives that inspired those who came over were also of a very varied character—love of glory and adventure, fanatical zeal, greed of conquest, delight in lawless rampage, and desire after plunder pure and simple.

The fleet that brought the Norman's great army has been variously stated by different writers. Thierry estimates the entire fleet at four hundred ships with



BATTLE OF HASTINGS, FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY.

masts and sails, and one thousand transport boats; Hume estimates the fleet at three thousand sail. No marine action or operation was involved in connection with the "Conquest" beyond what was required for the simple transport of the troops.

The culminating event—the one great event, indeed, that effected the Conquest—was the terrible battle of Hastings, a description of which is not within our province. Harold hastened from the North on hearing of the Norman landing. His army was depressed by severe services and want of rest, and greatly weakened by losses in the recent action. Urged by his brave and impetuous spirit, apprehensive of dangers that might result from delay,

contrary to the advice of his most able counsellors, Harold determined to attack the Normans with the least possible delay. The fatal battle was fought on the 14th of October 1066, just over a fortnight after William's landing. Harold and his two brothers, and a vast number of brave English nobles and knights were slain.

The death of Harold the Dauntless ended the line of Saxon kings. A great revolution was thus accomplished by the sword; and a nationality, half strangled but never slain, sank, bruised and bleeding, beneath the heel of a foreign conqueror.

Three of Harold's sons were fortunate enough to secure and carry off part of the English fleet, but although they were enabled to give the Conqueror some trouble, they were totally unable to undo the Conquest. Their activity, however, had the effect of stimulating William to provide a fleet for the defence of the realm. It does not appear that either he or his successors, William Rufus, Henry I., or Stephen, interested themselves much in the navy either as a means of defence or conquest, or that the power of this arm of the service was materially augmented in their time.

Henry II., a wise and brave prince, appreciated the value and importance of an effective navy, and was probably prevented from providing a much more powerful fleet than he had, by the consideration that there was



no present danger of the kingdom being attacked. The princes of Europe were devoting so much of their attention to the fact of the holy places in the East being in the possession of infidels, as to leave no room for attending to European politics, State boundaries, balance of power, and the like ; the crying need of the time was to turn the Turks, Saracens, and other unbelievers out of Jerusalem.

Henry II. did, however, provide abundant employment for his navy in the conquest of Ireland, which he kept in subjection by a fleet of four hundred sail,—from which he could at any time land troops for the subjugation of the insurgents, where insurrection was threatened. Henry's navy had another kind of usefulness. It gave him power, in a way, over his rebellious sons. His son Henry was so audacious and undutiful as to give his father battle at sea. This was in the year 1175. The rebellious son's ship and crew got the worst of it in the fight. Fierce domestic troubles with his wife and sons broke Henry's heart. He died of grief and fever in 1189.

## THE CINQUE PORTS.



### CHAPTER X.

#### PECULIAR RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES.

TO the invasion and settlement of the Norsemen in England we may reasonably attribute the predilection of the English for sea-going pursuits, their spirit of enterprise, their colonising tendencies, and their maritime supremacy. The aborigines, when the northern raiders first visited the shores of Britain, had no ships or boats; no Royal Navy, not even in embryo; no mercantile marine. Ferocious and sanguinary though they were, the piratical bands who in these early ages landed on the coasts of England and France were far in advance in civilisation of the races whom they invaded. Plunder and conquest were not always their exclusive or paramount objects, and some of the countries they colonised were quite as much benefited by their settlement as they were themselves. Although ruthless contests pre-

ceded and accompanied their first regular immigration, these free and independent settlers none the less added to the strength and the resources of the people with whom they mingled.

They taught the need of a navy, and to a great extent themselves supplied the maritime spirit and power that the people lacked ; they provided the leaven that leavened the whole lump.

The Royal Navy of England has been an institution of slow growth, and has undergone many mutations. Learned writers of a past generation have divided the history of the Navy into three periods—(1) the time preceding the reign of Henry VIII., (2) the period ending with the reign of Charles II., and (3) from the Restoration to their own time. A fourth period should be marked out, when our stately three-deckers, “the wooden walls of Old England,” have been superseded by armoured monitors, turret-ships, torpedoes, and submarine machines. •

Prior to the time of Henry VII. the kings of England had neither arsenals nor dockyards, and when they had need of ships for the public service, the Cinque Ports were called upon to provide the inadequate and unreliable supply. When they were requisitioned for a larger number of ships than it was in their power to provide, others to supplement them were bought or hired from merchants at home, or from the shipowners

of Dantzic, Hamburg, Lubeck, Genoa, or other foreign ports.

The Cinque Ports are in many respects a curious and interesting institution. Their incorporation had its origin in the necessity for some means of defence against invaders, especially along the southern seaboard of England,—for some power to take the duty that afterwards devolved upon the navy of the State,—an institution that did not come into existence for many centuries after the Roman invasion. Up to the time of Henry VII. the Cinque Ports were called upon to furnish, and actually supplied, all the ships and men that were employed for national defence. For a long time after they had provided all that was agreed on, they were often called upon to supplement and largely assist the permanent fleet.

From a charter of the time of Edward I. and records of subsequent dates, it appears that the Cinque Ports incorporated were Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich, to which the ancient ports of Rye and Winchelsea were afterwards added. The charter of the time of Edward I. refers to earlier documents relating to the Cinque Ports of the times of Edward the Confessor and William the Conqueror. The principal ports had a large number of "limbs," or members, associated with them. These included Pevensey, Seaford, Bulverhithe. Petit Iham, Beaksbourne, and Grange ;

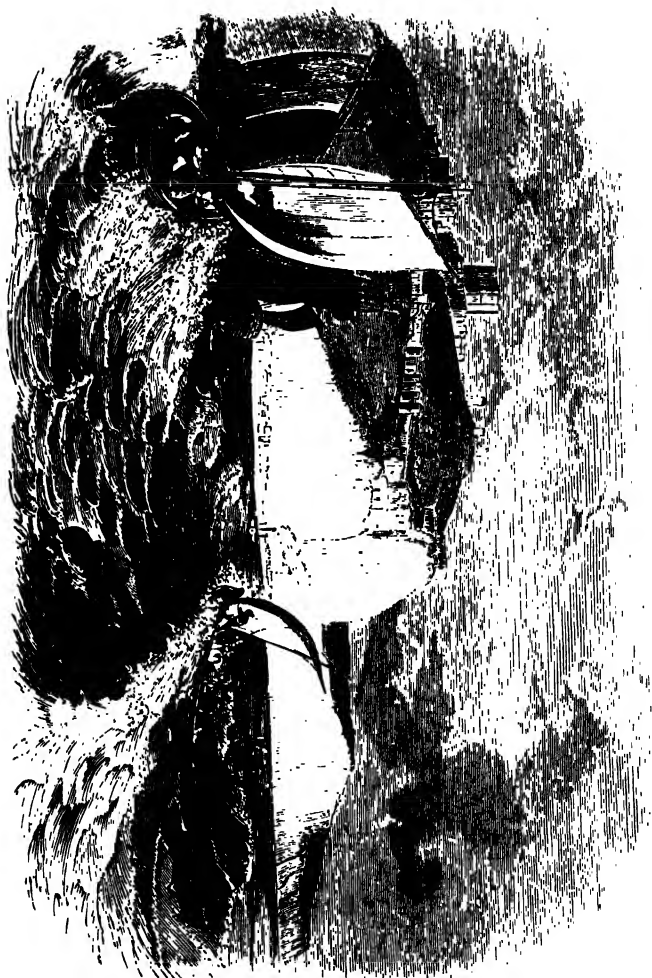
Lydd, Old Romney, Dengemarsh, and Oswardstone; Folkestone, Faversham, and Margate; St. John's, Gore-end, Burchington Wood, St. Peter, Kingsdown, and Ringwould; Fordwich and Deal; Walmer, Ramsgate, Stower, Sarre, and Brightlingsea. The jurisdiction of the Cinque Ports extended from Seaford in Sussex (in its palmy days a large borough, that sent two members to Parliament) to Burchington, Margate, embracing also a number of inland districts. There were in all thirty-two members, or "limbs," of the Cinque Ports that were all, it may be supposed, places of importance when they were appointed to the duty of providing ships of war and their crews for the service of the nation. Most of these "limbs" are now withered,—the names of a number of them are now forgotten, even in the localities where they once flourished.

The duty required of the five principal ports and their members were to find, when required, ships as below :—

Dover, with its members,	.	.	.	21 ships.
Hastings, „	.	.	.	21 „
Romney, „	.	.	.	5 „
Hythe, „	.	.	.	5 „
Sandwich, „	.	.	.	5 „

In every ship there were to be twenty-one men and a "garcion, or boye, which is called a gromet." The master mariner of these ships and the constable were

DOVER CASTLE.





paid sixpence per day, and the able-bodied seamen threepence per day each.

The service that the barons of the five ports acknowledged to owe to the king was to provide the ships and crews as stipulated; to send them to sea, upon due notice and summons, once a year, or at such times as they may be required; to serve, at their cost and charge, for fifteen days from the day of sailing, and so long after fifteen days as they may be required, at the cost of the nation.

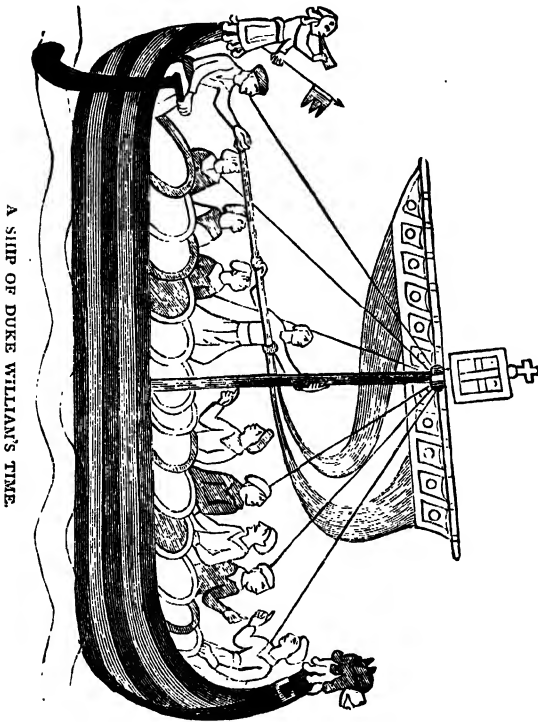
The tax and duties imposed upon the Cinque Ports were compensated for by peculiar rights and privileges granted to them, many of such rights and privileges, curious alike in their nature and nomenclature, relating to soc and sac, tax and tallage. The duly appointed legal authorities of the ports took cognisance, and exercised jurisdiction, in relation to civil and criminal cases arising within the liberties; they had the right to receive tolls and to hold serfs; powers of "Bloodwith and Fledwith"—to punish shedders of blood, and to seize them in attempting to escape; power to inflict the "pillory and tumbrel;" to levy tax, and labour for the erection of dykes to keep out the sea; powers of "infang theof and outfang theof," for the imprisonment and execution of felons; care of waifs and strays, and appropriation of lost property; power over "flotsam, jetsam, and witsom," and all property cast ashore;



power to impose taxes ; to call assembly of "portmote," or Parliament, at Shepway or Shepway Cross (a few miles west of Hythe); to make bye-laws; to regulate Yarmouth fishery; to hear appeals from local courts; to try cases of "treason, sedition, coining, and concealment of treasure trove." The ports were governed according to the decrees of their "Courts of Brotherhood," and of "Brotherhood and Guestling," which were composed of the mayors of the Cinque Ports and of Rye and Winchelsea, jurats and freemen, the latter in addition to bailiffs and other representatives of corporate members. The highest officer of the court was the Lord Warden, who was also Governor of Dover Castle, and appointed the Justices of the Peace within the liberties of the Cinque Ports.

The suit and service rendered by the Cinque Ports, and the immunities, powers, and privileges that they enjoyed and exercised, were growths rather than the creations of any particular sovereign. They were confirmed by William the Conqueror, some of them not to his liking, if not even against his will. The incorporating a town with exclusive privileges was known in England, prior to the Conquest. As early as the time of Edward the Confessor, Dover had the liberty of holding a court for the administration of justice. The town of Dover was the first of the Cinque Ports incorporated with privileges for stipulated services.

The charters granted to the barons of the Cinque Ports by the kings of the Norman line were not charters of



enfranchisement, but confirmation of privileges that they had enjoyed before the Conquest.

About the year 1066 William I. had it hinted to the

incorporated towns that presents would be acceptable to him; and, to encourage them to be liberal, he artfully held out to them the flattering prospect of confirming their liberties.<sup>1</sup> For 1066 a later date should have been given, that being the year of the Conquest. From other historians, notably Lambard, quoting Thomas Spot, monk and chronicler of St. Augustine's, Canterbury, we learn that Duke William of Normandy, having overthrown King Harold at the battle of Hastings, marched with his victorious army upon Dover; that Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Egelsine, Abbot of St. Augustine's, aroused the men of Kent and the Kentish men within the range of their influence, and set on fire their blood, by prophecies of the dire distress and misery that must inevitably follow their submission to the cruel, proud, intolerant invaders. The people rallied at Swanscombe, elected the archbishop and the abbot the reverend and gallant leaders of the host, and, each man covering himself with a green bough, awaited the Conqueror, whom the marvellous wood greatly amazed. At the sound of the trumpet the boughs were thrown away, and the men's weapons were displayed. The herald of the defenders delivered the following message to William:—"The commons of Kent are ready to offer thee either peace or war at thine own choice and election: peace, with their

<sup>1</sup> *History of Dover*, Lyon, vol. ii. 199.

faithful obedience, if thou wilt permit them to enjoy their ancient liberties; war most deadly if thou deny it them.”<sup>1</sup> The boon asked for was small, and the risk of denying it great. The terms were unpalatable to the imperious Conqueror, who wisely, although unwillingly, yielded, and thus obtained possession of the great fortress of Dover Castle and the promised allegiance of the people, who were thus an exception among the inhabitants of the conquered realm, and retained their established privileges. The privileges here referred to were those enjoyed by the Cinque Ports, which were revised and modified by William, who created the office of Warden, or at least, according to Lambard, first imposed the title of “Wardene, out of his own barbarous language, half French, half Dutch.” The “jurats,” who constitute parts of the governing bodies of the Cinque Ports, are also officials of the Norman’s designation.

Remarkable physical changes have taken place upon the coast-line near some of the Cinque Ports and their “limbs,” or members, since the time that they were instituted. Romney, the headquarters of the ports, where the courts of “Guestling and Brotherhood” were held, and where the charters and records were kept, was a thriving port at the mouth of the river Limene, or Rother. At Domesday it had five parish churches, an

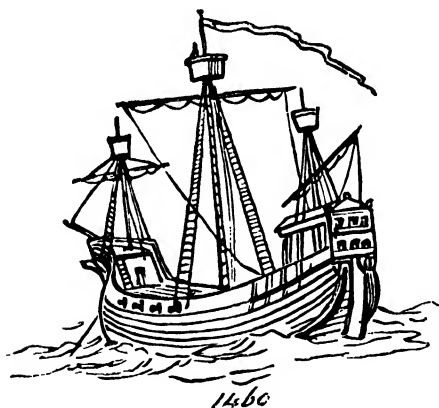
<sup>1</sup> Lambard’s *Perambulation of Kent*.

hospital, and other important public buildings. The town was divided into twelve wards, in which there were 158 burgesses. It sent two members to Parliament. Now it is a sleepy little place two miles from the sea, with no river near it, and four of the five parish churches gone, as well as the river. Its population of 2772, at last census, showed a decrease as compared with the census of 1871. Old Romney was a member. It is farther inland; it was once a place of note, and had a good harbour at the mouth of the river Limene, the source of which failed, or the course became diverted. The course of the river, it is stated, can still be traced. Old Romney has decayed much, and is now only a hamlet, with a population of about 200 souls. Lydd, in the same locality, an important member of Romney, as a Cinque Port, was also originally on the coast; there is now an extensive military camp between Lydd and the sea. It has a population of a little more than 3000, and may be called the capital of the peculiar district in which the Romneys and Lydd are situated—the Romney, Wallend, Dengie, and Guildford Marshes—that extend from Hythe in the east to Rye in the west, and are bounded by the military canal on the north, and a Flemish “dune,” or sea-wall, on the south. Appledore, the Saxon Apuldre, the Apeldres of Domesday, at the most northerly point of the district, is a little more than ten miles north from Dungeness. It was a port in early

times to which the invading Danes, about 893, sailed up the river Limene, and there entrenched themselves. Lydd has always been a comparatively important town in the district. It furnished a large contingent of ships and men when the Cinque Ports were requisitioned to contribute maritime service to the State. The men were of a sort that, if they could be made amenable to discipline, furnished the best material for manning a fighting fleet. Smugglers—daring, hardy, resolute men—abounded in some of the Cinque Ports, and notably at Lydd. Wool is a staple product of the marshes, and when there was an export duty on wool, although a bulky, unhandy kind of goods for stealthy conveyance, the smugglers of Lydd and adjacent parts of the marshes, contrived to carry off large quantities without paying export duty. The coast-guard service was very weak, or the smugglers were very strong, and even so audacious and irreverent as to use All Saints' Church at Lydd—a noble old building—for storing the wool collected for export in evasion of the duty. The fine tower of the church is believed to have been built at the expense of the great Cardinal Wolsey, who was vicar of Lydd for a number of years from about 1504. It is recorded that at the time the export duty was charged on wool, forty thousand packs were landed at Calais from Kent and Sussex alone. Lydd did its full share in this wholesale smuggling. Seaford, another member of the Cinque Ports, on the East Sussex coast,

continues a coast town, but is greatly reduced. It was a busy, prosperous town, and privileged to send two members to Parliament. Of the "two ancient cities, Rye and Winchelsea," that were added to the five ports, both are now inland towns. Rye sent two members to Parliament; one has been taken from it in consequence of its decay. At last census it had a population of 4220 in the municipal borough. Old Winchelsea was drowned, swept from the face of the earth; New Winchelsea, that succeeded it, is also almost effaced from the map. What is left of it has ceased to be a port, the shore having gained considerably. It may be mentioned that all along the beach of the marshes, including Dungeness promontory, the shingle is continuously gaining upon the sea, making more land—such as it is. The rate of progress from time to time can be distinctly pointed out by those familiar with the district. Sandwich, another of the Cinque Ports, once a thriving seaport, has long been silted up, and made inaccessible to shipping by the shallows of Pegwell Bay. While land is being made at certain parts of our coasts, the sea is encroaching at others. The site of Ravenspur, for instance, on the coast of Yorkshire, at which Edward IV. landed about the year 1470, during the Wars of the Roses, has long since been covered by the sea. Similar encroachments, according to tradition, have been made on the Lancashire coast, and in various other

localities ; but nowhere, probably, have the changes in the coast-line been greater than in the south-eastern counties that are fringed by the ancient Cinque Ports.





# RICHARD CŒUR DE LION.



## CHAPTER XI.

### CRUSADERS AND SARACENS.

**R**ICHARD I., the successor of Henry II., engaged early and earnestly in the Holy War, or crusades for the recovery of the Holy Land from the infidels. Before the death of his father he had formed an alliance with Philip II., King of France, in which they bound themselves by oath to do their utmost for the delivery of the Holy Land. Richard, immediately after his coronation, collected a large army, and equipped a fleet of one hundred and fifty ships of war, and about fifty galleys, and, in addition, eight ships of extraordinary large size, fitted and equipped in the best style possible. Richard's force was greatly superior to that which any of the other princes contributed.

His regulations for the preservation of good order and discipline showed that much consideration had been



RICHARD I.

given to the subject. The punishments for offenders were original and remarkable. The man who killed another on shipboard was tied to the dead body and thrown into the sea. The drawing of a knife or weapon to kill another, or wounding to the drawing of blood, was punished by cutting off the offender's hand ; but if no blood followed, he was to be plunged three times into the sea. A thief was doomed to have his head shorn, to have hot pitch poured upon it, and feathers thrown upon the pitch. The fellow thus marked with infamy was to be set ashore at the first landing-place.

Richard and Philip had an interview in France, when they concluded and ratified their treaty, and agreed to rendezvous at Messina. Richard was delayed by storms, and did not arrive at Messina till September 20, 1190. Richard had occasion, while there, to assert his kingly power and dignity. The King of Sicily having treated him, as he thought, disrespectfully, and having expelled the English from his capital on account of a quite unimportant matter, Richard, on the night of the 4th October, assaulted and took the city. He compelled the king to pay him forty thousand ounces of gold, to which he had an ancient claim, to furnish four large galleons and fifteen galleys for the use of the Crusaders, and give his daughter in marriage to Arthur, Duke of Bretagne, Richard's nephew.

The discharging of these practical duties caused the

more sentimental object of the expedition to be put aside for a time, and Richard did not proceed to the Holy Land until April 1191. He was joined by his mother and Berengaria, Princess of Navarre, his affianced wife. The fleet suffered greatly from violent storms. Some of the ships were stranded on the island of Cyprus. The king of the island refused to allow the ships to enter his ports, and would not extend any indulgence even to the ships in which Cœur de Lion's distressed bride and his mother were confined. King Isaac of Cyprus was not aware of the sort of man he had to deal with. Isaac was heartless enough to seize and plunder the shipwrecked seamen who had to land on his shores. Richard attacked the island, took three castles, made prisoners of the king and his daughter, and relieved him of his treasure. At Cyprus, Richard led the Princess Berengaria to the hymeneal altar amid the hearty cheers of the crew of the flagship and as many others as were admitted to witness the ceremony. Having received the homage of the nobles of Cyprus, —valuable and important as "a place of arms,"—he appointed two of his followers, Richard de Camvill and Robert de Turnham, governors of the island, and sent the king a prisoner to Tripoli.

Richard's conquests had increased his fleet to a total of 254 stout ships. This looks rather like undignified buccaneering, but such is the recorded fact respecting

the Lion Heart's operations in his leisurely voyage to the holy places. In his passage from Cyprus to Acre, in the month of June, Richard fell in with a vessel of immense size, a galeas belonging to the Saracens. It was bound for Acre with fifteen hundred soldiers on board, who were intended for the relief of the garrison. Richard boarded and took this floating castle. He had only very limited accommodation for passengers, even in his enlarged fleet, so he drowned thirteen hundred of the soldiers ; some of the people on board were "persons of distinction," and these could possibly pay well for their passage, and so had their lives spared.

Acre was reckoned a place of great importance, and many attempts were made to relieve it ; and, although it was blockaded at sea by the English, the infidels resolved to rescue the port if possible. They approached with a powerful fleet, but the English bore down upon them with such impetuosity as secured victory and enabled them to capture a number of the enemy's ships. They found on board great supplies of ammunition and provisions, grappling-irons, and stores, and amongst them a number of vessels charged with an inextinguishable combustible composition, called *ignis græcus*—Greek fire, —and others filled with living serpents. The Saracens had not been allowed time to discharge any of these missiles at or into the British ships—the use for which they had been prepared.

In July, Saladin, the valiant Sultan of Egypt, surrendered Acre to Cœur de Lion, his illustrious antagonist, and Richard was constituted Captain-General of all the Christian forces in Asia.

Richard performed wonderful feats of valour in Palestine, which excited the admiration of his enemies but the envy and hatred of his associates. One after another, they backed out of the enterprise, and left Richard with inadequate means for the achievement of the object they had all been united in their determination to attain. In succession, the King of France, the Dukes of Austria and Burgundy, drew off, and Richard felt constrained to conclude a truce with Saladin for three years, three months, three weeks, and three days, at the end of which time he declared it was his intention to come back. Saladin, with courtly politeness, declared that if it was to be his fate to lose part of his dominions, he would rather lose them to Richard than to any other prince.

• Richard and the Sultan Saladin regarded each other with mutual respect; Richard regarded his illustrious associates in what they professed to consider their holy enterprise with contempt, because of their pusillanimity; on the other hand, they cherished towards Richard envy and hatred, because of the brilliancy of his achievements, by which they were utterly eclipsed. Philip of France deserted and betrayed Richard, who had also made Duke Leopold of Austria his bitter enemy. It is



CAPTURE OF RICHARD.

recorded that Leopold planted the banner of Austria upon the ramparts of St. Jean d'Acre, and that Richard tore it down as a usurpation; and further, that the duke refused his co-operation at Ascalon, which provoked Richard actually to strike him.

On his return voyage to England, Richard was wrecked in the Gulf of Venice, between Venice and Trieste. What motive could have taken him so far out of his course as the head of the Adriatic, it is difficult to conjecture, if it was not the expectation of picking up prizes. He landed involuntarily upon what he had sufficient reason to fear would prove an inhospitable, unfriendly shore. He assumed the disguise and character of a travelling merchant. The costly clothing of his page, and the foreign gold seen in his possession as he went marketing, excited suspicion, and led to his detection and arrest at Erperg, near Vienna. The prisoner of Duke Leopold of Austria, his enemy, he was imprisoned for a long time in a castle in the Tyrol. The Emperor of Germany bought the royal captive from Leopold for fifty thousand marks. In a court of inquiry at Worms, held in 1193, Richard was tried, made an eloquent defence, and did homage to the emperor, by whom, in deference to public opinion, he was released.

Richard reached England on the 11th March 1194, after an absence of more than four years, fourteen months of which were spent in an Austrian dungeon.



Discord and confusion prevailed in the dominion of the returned monarch. The treasure that had been wasted upon the "Holy War," and the enormous ransom that had been paid for his deliverance from captivity, had reduced his subjects to a state of abject poverty. These circumstances did not prevent Richard from attempting to avenge the injuries he had sustained from Philip of France. A desultory war with France followed, which ended, when Richard died in 1199 from the effects of an arrow wound received at the siege of Limousin. This miserable contest seems to have had no more definite aim or object than the gratification of the hostility of the royal combatants, and no more tangible result than grievous suffering and heavy loss to their crushed and depleted subjects.

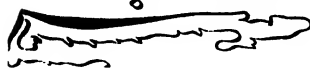
KING JOHN  
AND  
WILLIAM LONGSWORD,  
HIS TRUSTY COUNSELLOR.

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CHAPTER XII.

FIRST NAVAL ACTION BETWEEN THE FLEETS OF  
FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

WILLIAM LONGSWORD was the son of King Henry II.; his mother was Rosamond Clifford, better known by the appropriate distinctive title of "Fair Rosamond." By marrying Ella, the only child and heiress of William, Earl of Salisbury, he received her father's titles. Longsword's relation to royalty secured for him many marks of royal favour. He was for nine years sheriff of Wilts, and was also warden of the marches of Wales. William Longsword was the trusty counsellor of King John, and the capable commander of his naval forces.

ohannes dei gra Rex Angl. Dns Hybr. Dux Horman. Arm. & Comes  
 Andeg. Archiepis epis. Comibz. Barenbz. iustic. forellar. vice-  
 comibz. Prepositis. Milibz. & omnibz suis. Salutem.

Nullus liber homo capiatur ut imprisonetur aut dissolvatur aut distringat  
 aut exulet aut aliquo modo sestratur nec super eum ibimus nec super eum mittemus nisi per le-  
 gale iudicium patrum suorum ut per legem terre.

Datis per manum nostram in preato quod vocatur Runnymede inter  
 Willelmo Regem & Barones. Quinto decimo die Junij. Anno Regni nostri septi-  
 mo decimo.

It seems strange that the right of Britannia to rule the waves should have been first asserted by King John, but it was so. Early in his reign, in 1202, he published a spirited edict, to the effect that ships or vessels met with on the high seas, that refused to strike to the British flag, should be liable to attack and capture, and to be dealt with as lawful prizes, even although they should happen to be ships belonging to a country or power at peace with England. This resolute claim of naval superiority, and jealous enforcement of submission, rendered the post of chief commander of the fleet, held by the Earl of Salisbury, one of unusual importance,—demanding courage and discretion, and ensuring respect.

In the conflict between King John and the barons, Salisbury adhered loyally to his master, and incurred considerable odium thereby.

Philip of France, the treacherous enemy of Richard I., had encouraged John in acts of rebellion against him while he was absent in Palestine; but now that John was in power, Philip turned against him also. Under the pretence of supporting the claim of Prince Arthur, John's nephew, who had in fact a title to the crown, Philip prepared a large army for the purpose of wresting Normandy from the English. The dissensions that prevailed in England gave him every advantage, and he recovered several provinces from the English crown.

King John was continually in trouble with the pope,

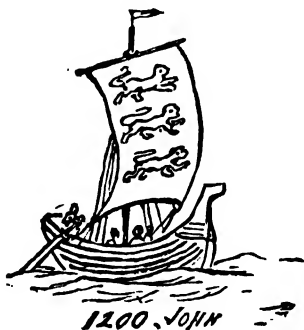
who, after excommunicating him without obtaining his submission, at last resorted, in 1213, to the extreme measure of deposing him. His holiness conferred the kingdom of England upon Philip of France, with authority to take immediate possession—if he could. John had been anticipating some such diplomatic move as this, and preparing for it; his army and navy were in good condition, awaiting Philip's arrival to take possession of the pope's little present—the kingdom of England! Immense preparations had been made for the invasion; according to some accounts, the French king had a fleet of seventeen hundred sail. John's fleet was quite as powerful, but his courage failed him at last; he feared that he could not depend upon the loyalty of his subjects while he lay under the papal interdict; he accordingly made his submission, and did homage to the pope, who cancelled his bull of deposition, and restored to John his dominions.

The English were disgusted at the degradation of their king by the pope, and Philip was enraged at his mockery in making him a present with the one hand of what he took back with the other. He in turn rebelled against the pope, and called upon his princes and nobles to assist him in the invasion of England. Ferrand, Count of Flanders, peremptorily refused, and reproached Philip for his baseness in taking advantage of his brother sovereign's misfortunes. Philip was indignant at the

presumption of the count in daring to censure him, and straightway directed his fleet northwards to the coast of Flanders, invading the country at the same time with an army marching into it by land. The count had entered into a treaty with King John, who stood true to his obligation, and despatched, April 1213, a fleet of five hundred sail under the command of William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury, to the assistance of Flanders. The French fleet is reported to have numbered about seventeen hundred sail. That the vessels of this great fleet were comparatively small, may be inferred from the circumstance that their destination was Damme, the port of Bruges, situated upon a canal several miles distant from the seaboard. When Salisbury with his fleet reached Damme, he found some of the French ships at anchor outside the harbour, with others moored inside, and the crews of most of the ships ashore on plundering expeditions. Salisbury ordered an immediate attack. The Frenchmen were taken by surprise, and three hundred of their ships, laden with spoil, were speedily captured; about a hundred of the smaller vessels lay aground on the banks. These were cleared of everything in them that was worth carrying away, and after being rifled, were set on fire. The Frenchmen ashore, within sight of the battle, returned with speed to their ships, and joined in the *mêlée*. It could scarcely be called either a

naval action or a battle; it was a sanguinary scrimmage on the banks of the harbour, and on the decks of the great field of ships, or boats, closely locked together. After long-continued obstinate fighting and great slaughter, the French yielded themselves prisoners. Salisbury brought away as many prizes as he could well manage, and left the remnant of this great French fleet terribly crippled. Philip completed its destruction by burning the remaining ships.

This is the first recorded naval action between the fleets of France and England: the first decided victory gained by an English admiral over the French has thus to be placed to the credit of William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury.



# HUBERT DE BURGH,

## EARL OF KENT.



### CHAPTER XIII.

#### DEFEAT OF THE FRENCH.

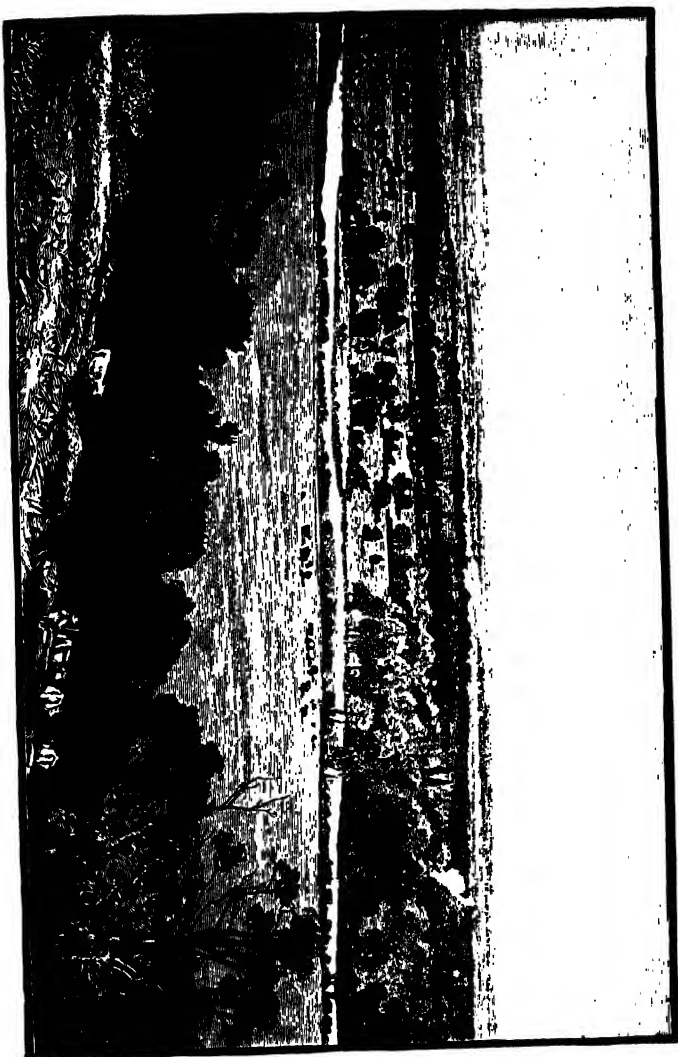
**H**UBERT DE BURGH was of good family, and was regarded with favour by Richard I. and John. In the reign of the latter he attained to exalted and confidential posts, being warden of the marches of Wales, seneschal of Poitou, and sheriff of several counties. He was employed in several embassies and in foreign negotiations, and was appointed one of the commissioners, on the part of the king, to settle the terms of Magna Charta at Runnymede. He gave King John so great satisfaction in this important matter, that he appointed him forthwith chief justiciary of England, and in rapid succession added the dignities of sheriff of Kent and Surrey, governor of the Castle of Canterbury, and constable of Dover Castle. When the



barons again declared their dissatisfaction, and "wanted more," the king appointed De Burgh to treat on his behalf with the Earl of Clare and others representing the barons. The attempted negotiation failed, and Hubert repaired to Dover Castle, to defend it for the king, to the last extremity.

The gallant De Burgh had only a garrison of about one hundred and fifty soldiers, and his own servants. The French Prince Louis besieged the castle, and lost a large number of men without weakening the defence. Louis drew off to a greater distance, but continued the siege, in the course of which the king died, whereupon he asked for a parley. He represented to Hubert that the king being dead, his allegiance died with him, and that he might now surrender, and if he did, he would be enriched, loaded with honours, and made the chief of his council. After taking counsel with his garrison, Hubert replied that though the king was dead their loyalty continued alive, that the king had left sons and daughters, one of whom should succeed him, and he would hold the castle for the rightful heir. Foiled and enraged, Louis left Dover to assault places less dangerous to attack, and less valiantly defended.

Hubert received intelligence that Philip of France was sending a fleet to assist his son Louis, and determined to prevent their landing, if possible. He collected all the force he could from the Cinque Ports, and put to sea. On



RUNNVAEDE.



the 24th of August 1217, he fell in with the French fleet of eighty large ships, besides smaller vessels. Hubert, nobly courageous afloat as well as ashore, although he had only forty ships, determined to give the enemy battle. His tactics were admirable. He tacked about till he got to windward of the French fleet, and bore down upon them with great force; his ships were fitted with iron beaks or prows, that crashed into the enemy's ships, and sank as many of them as they could strike at a sufficiently direct angle. Gunpowder was as yet unknown in warfare, but Hubert resorted to powder of another kind, nearly as destructive in the help it gave, as an auxiliary, to the weapons of the time. Each ship was provided with an ample supply of quicklime, which, at the proper moment, was thrown into the air; the Frenchmen being to leeward had their work cut out in attempting to escape from the blinding dust. The English archers showered their arrows upon the Frenchmen with fatal effect. The combined destructive action of the iron beaks, the blinding lime, and the piercing arrows, destroyed a number of the French ships, killed a large number of their crews, and threw the remainder into confusion. The victory was so far complete, but Hubert was unable, with his small fleet, to encompass the enemy so as to prevent escape. Some of the Frenchmen did escape, and burned Sandwich, but they were completely foiled

in the special object of their expedition—the landing of reinforcements to their Prince. This exploit of Hubert was the ruin of Louis' cause, who was forced



HENRY III.

to shut himself up in London, where he was besieged by the army,—Hubert's fleet blocking the mouth of the Thames against any attempt to send him reinforcements.

Louis found his invasion and attempted conquest of England a miserable failure, and, making some kind of compact with the barons, returned home, a sadder, if not a wiser man, than he came.

A notable captive was taken in this action—Eustace Le Moyne, an apostate monk, who, abandoning the cloister, had for many years infested the northern seas as a pirate. He was a mercenary wretch, ready to sell his services to the highest bidder, sometimes to one prince, sometimes, as it might turn out, to that prince's enemy. Eustace offered a large sum of money for his own ransom, but Hubert would have nothing to do with his ill-gotten gains, and could not condone his crimes. He delivered the recreant monk to the executioner, who struck off his head, which was stuck upon a pole, and made a spectacle of at the court, and in divers public places.

Hubert's reputation was greatly raised by his decisive action with the French, and additional honours and emoluments were conferred upon him. In 1219 he was made governor of the king and kingdom during the king's minority.

This exalted position he filled with sound judgment and integrity. He added to his dignity by marrying Margaret, sister to the King of Scotland. In 1227 he was created Earl of Kent, and had many manorial demesnes and advowsons bestowed upon him. Henry

also confirmed him in the office of justiciary of England, and constable of Dover Castle for life.

Henry the Third was a weak prince, and, listening to the counsels of envious rivals of the Earl of Kent, became the enemy of the man who had never swerved in loyalty to himself. Peter de Roches, Bishop of Winchester, born in Poitiers, was appointed his minister by Henry. De Burgh was persecuted to such degree that he took flight. A band of soldiers were sent to drag him from his sanctuary to the Tower of London. The bishops made an outcry against this violation of a holy place, and he was brought back to the church whence he had been dragged, was thrust in, naked and hungry, to spend forty days in the cold, damp building, round which a ditch and stockade had been carried to prevent his escape or his relief.

Poor, brave Hubert! the time had come for him to bid farewell to all his greatness. The malignity and brutality, with which he was persecuted and tortured through many years, cast eternal infamy alike upon king and courtiers. His property was an irresistible temptation to the avarice of the king, who was ever ready, by terror and imprisonment, to deprive him of it, and his life was often in extreme danger, through the malice of his enemies. At length the unfortunate victim of persecution, by surrendering some of his most valuable demesnes, obtained a general pardon, and

was allowed to live in peace on the remnant of his once large possessions. He died in November 1243, a most able and faithful minister to a most unworthy and ungrateful monarch.



## EDWARD I. AND HIS ADMIRALS.



### CHAPTER XIV.

#### THE FIRST PRINCE OF WALES.

**H**ENRY III., surnamed Winchester, was a weak, vacillating, and incapable ruler. Before his life and reign came to an end in 1272, his chivalrous son Edward, surnamed Longshanks from the extraordinary length of his legs, had betaken himself to the Holy Land, to share in the perils and the equivocal glory and renown to be gathered in the Crusades, in the eighth and last of which he took part. In the Holy War he had only a small force—about a thousand men—under his command, but with these he performed prodigies of valour, and became an object of fear and hate to the Moslems, who attempted his assassination. It is narrated that, as he lay one evening on his couch, a young man entered his tent on the pretence that he brought letters from the Emir of Joppa. Approaching Edward, he struck



EDWARD I.

him with a dagger which he had carried concealed. The prince knocked him down, and killed him as he lay. The assassin had so far succeeded as to wound the prince, and, from the blackening of the wound, it was suspected that the dagger had been poisoned. It is a pretty tradition that the Princess Eleanor of Castile, whom Prince Edward had married, sucked the poison from the wounded arm of her husband.

Having concluded in Palestine a truce for ten years, Edward turned homewards, and received, in Italy, intelligence of his father's death. He spent some time in France, and had a characteristic adventure at Chalons-sur-Saone. The Count of Chalons challenged Edward to meet him at a tournament. The prince met him readily. The count made a desperate attempt to unhorse his adversary. Edward, a firm and skilful horseman, evaded the attack, and reversed the plan by dragging the count from his saddle, and forcing him to beg for mercy.

Before returning home he performed a much more sensible and useful deed than fighting in the ring. A quarrel between his father Henry and the Countess of Flanders had interrupted, to the serious disadvantage and loss of both countries, the profitable trade in the export of wool from England to Flanders, and the import from that country of dyed woollen cloths. Edward contrived to obtain the consent of all the parties con-

cerned to renew their commercial intercourse, to their mutual advantage.

Edward arrived in his kingdom on the 2nd August 1274. Although the barons had given much trouble to his father, they yielded to him willing obedience. Edward was desirous that peace should prevail within his kingdom, and a conflict with Llewellyn, the turbulent prince of Wales, he regarded as forced upon him. He marched into Wales at the head of a large army to subdue the Welsh. A fleet co-operated with the land force by blockading the ports. Llewellyn made a valiant defence, but was quite unable to resist the crushing forces brought against him. He was hunted, with his dispirited followers, into the woods, and starved into submission. Peace was made on terms most humiliating to the Welsh. The peace was of short duration, and Llewellyn, the last of the Welsh kings, fell in 1282. In the subjugation of the Welsh the English were chargeable, according to some chroniclers, with great cruelties, including the massacre of the bards at Conway. It is also charged against them that they not only tyrannously executed, but barbarously mutilated at Shrewsbury, David, the heroic brother of the unfortunate Welsh king. The victors disgraced themselves by savage mockery of the slaughtered brave Llewellyn, whose head, crowned with a wreath of ivy, was displayed upon the battlements of the Tower of London. The

inglorious conquest of Wales was completed, and an eldest son was born to the King of England, in Carnarvon Castle, in the same year, 1282. Wales, ceasing to be a separate kingdom, was made a principality, and the infant son of the conquering king, who had been born upon the newly acquired territory, was the first to be designated Prince of Wales,—the title that has been borne by the eldest son of the sovereign of England ever since that date. It may be noticed that this first Prince of Wales was afterwards Edward II., King of England, who measured his strength against that of Bruce at Bannockburn, with a somewhat different result from that which had attended his father's onslaught upon Llewellyn of Wales.

The rival claims to the Scottish throne of John Baliol and Robert Bruce, and the opening that seemed to be thus presented for uniting the two kingdoms under his reign as sovereign, kept Edward fully employed for several years. His French possessions and the troubles attending their retention, drew heavily upon his energies and resources, and naval affairs were necessarily neglected.

In 1293 a great sea-fight took place in the Channel, that may be aptly described as a "sailors' battle," as it originated with the common sailors and boatmen of the southern ports, notably the mariners of the Cinque Ports.

It fell out that an English ship touched at a Norman





port for the purpose of taking in water. In going about their business, the English sailors quarrelled with a party of Norman seamen, with whom they had a free fight, in which one of the Normans was killed. The Normans complained to the King of France, who impatiently brushed them aside, telling them, in effect, to fight their own battle, and not trouble him. Upon this hint they promptly acted. Scouring the Channel with a superior force, they soon fell in with an English ship, which they boarded, and, taking the victims at random, hung several of the English crew, and along with them hung up as many dogs, to the yard-arm. They insolently ordered the survivors in the English ship to go home and tell their countrymen that this was the way they avenged the death of the Norman that had been killed. This insulting message sped fleetly along shore, and thoroughly aroused the fierce anger of the mariners of the Cinque Ports. They made no appeal to their king for authority, but rushed at the enemy, and, in fierce retaliation, bettered the example of the Normans, destroying promptly, and without parley, all the French ships that they met with, and could master. The French were, of course, infuriated in an equal degree, and the Channel and Bay of Biscay swarmed with piratical vessels of divers kinds, bent upon the destruction of each other. For a time the sovereigns of the two countries made no attempt to stop this savage



and ruinous conflict. Many ships had been taken, plundered, and destroyed on both sides, and their crews murdered. The combatants became weary of the struggle, and probably the respective sovereigns of France and England were assenting parties, if not originators, in determining that the sailors' feud should be determined by a marine duel in the Channel.

Both parties were alike eager for the grand conflict, and so far acted together as to agree concerning the locality where the battle was to be begun—end where it might. One of the sides—which is not recorded—provided a large empty hulk, that was moored in the Channel, to mark the place where the enemies were to assemble and exchange their deadly salutes. The contest excited great interest among the mariners of neighbouring countries. French, Flemings, and Genoese buccaneers gave a measure of assistance to the Normans; and the English were reinforced, although not to a very material extent, by contingents from Ireland, Holland, and some other places. Robert de Tibetot, or Tiptoff, as he has been named, was commander of the English fleet. Tiptoff had the confidence of King Edward, whom he had attended in the Holy Land. He was also the king's lieutenant in Wales. In 1292 he had encountered Rees ap Meredith, one of the native

princes of the country, and killed in battle four thousand of his followers, taking Rees, the gallant patriot, a prisoner. Rees was sent to York, where he was beheaded,—thus losing his life in the service of his country.

The great sea-fight took place in the Channel on the 14th of April 1293. No plan of the battle has been preserved ; probably no plan was ever laid down upon either side. The enemies met, boiling with rage against each other, with eager desire for mutual extermination. The battle was protracted, obstinate, and bloody. It resulted in a complete victory to the English. Many of the Norman ships were sunk or destroyed, and a vast number of their men drowned. It has been stated that the Normans and their allies lost as many as fifteen thousand men,—this large number being accounted for, on the supposition that the Norman fleet included a number of transports with returning troops.

Philip of France was enraged by this crushing and humiliating defeat, and sent an embassy to the King of England to demand reparation, the punishment of those concerned, and the payment of an enormous indemnity for the losses his merchants had sustained. Edward prudently engaged to give the whole matter full and careful consideration, and to send his reply to Philip's demand by special messenger. Edward's wise and

reasonable proposal was that commissioners should be appointed on both sides to inquire exhaustively into the circumstances attending the origin and history of the feud, and to pronounce judgment. Philip rejected this proposal, and haughtily summoned the King of England to appear before him, and answer for what had passed. The day assigned for Edward's appearance at Philip's bar arrived, but, as might have been expected, no appearance was put in by the English king. He was again summoned to appear on another day, under the penalty, if he failed to appear, of forfeiting all his dominions beyond the seas. Before the day arrived for which he was cited to appear, Edward sent his brother Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, and the Earl of Leicester, with instructions to make an end of the business. Philip would not so much as admit the ambassadors, and pronounced judgment that Edward must be deprived of Aquitaine, and all his transmarine dominions, for his contempt in not appearing to Philip's summons. A war between England and France followed, in which Admiral Tiptoff honourably distinguished himself. Seizing a favourable opportunity, he entered the Seine, and sank all the ships he found in the river. He made prizes also of a number of French ships laden with wine and other merchandise and produce. Other English naval commanders also performed successful exploits, but this war with France received com-

paratively little personal attention from the king, who was at the time much more interested in Scottish affairs.

In this war William de Leibourne also acquitted himself meritoriously as an English naval commander. Philip of France having seized Guienne, Edward equipped a powerful armament for its recovery. De Leibourne was son and heir of Roger de Leibourne, who, in the reign of Henry III., was warden of the Cinque Ports, and distinguished himself as a valiant supporter of the king against the rebellious barons, and their adherent, Llewelyn, Prince of Wales. The naval force of Edward was divided into three fleets, one of which, appointed to rendezvous at Portsmouth, was placed under the command of William de Leibourne. The mode in which this armament was provided is worthy of passing notice. The king directed his precept to the sheriffs of Southampton and several other counties, and to portions of Wales and Ireland, commanding them to furnish him with timber for the building of sixty ships, to be in readiness at Portsmouth, on a certain prescribed date. The precept was promptly obeyed, and the squadron was in readiness at the time appointed.

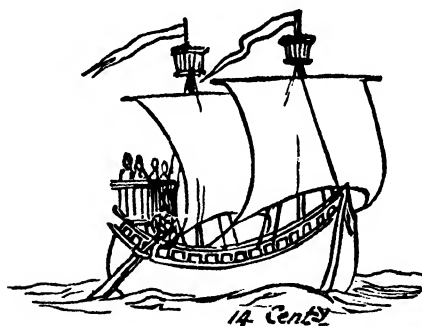
In 1296 an invasion of England by Philip was expected, and the Portsmouth squadron had been primarily intended for defence. Ready for action, but not needed for immediate defensive purposes, Leibourne turned his

attention to the offensive. About Michaelmas he set sail for the mouth of the Garonne, where he landed a considerable body of troops, and captured a number of towns, including Bordeaux and Bayonne. This success provoked the French to extraordinary effort to make heavy reprisals. In the following year the French equipped a fleet of about three hundred vessels, with which they made a sudden descent upon Dover, which they took and burnt. In this exploit the foreign invaders were aided by an English traitor—Sir Thomas Tuberville. The men of Kent from the surrounding country rallied speedily to the rescue and drove back the French to their ships with the loss of nearly a thousand men. Unfortunately, while these unexpected French visitors were destroying Dover, Lebourne, with his Portsmouth fleet, was on a piratical cruise, in which he fell in with a fleet of richly-laden Spanish merchantmen, fifteen of which he towed triumphantly into Sandwich, then a port with free access, and not as now, cut off from the sea by the sand which has accumulated there.

This was the last of Lebourne's naval exploits. He attended Edward I. in his expeditions to Flanders and Scotland, and was for several years a member of Parliament. He died in 1309.

Edward II. furnished a striking contrast to his illustrious father. He was feeble in peace, inglorious

in war, weakly, led by dishonest favourites, contemptible in his domestic relations. During his reign, naval affairs were in a weak and disordered condition, and no actions or exploits occurred in connection with the Navy that are worthy of notice.



## WILLIAM, EARL OF HUNTINGDON.



### CHAPTER XV.

#### HOW THE PRINCE OF WALES TOOK HIS CREST.

WILLIAM DE CLINTON, descended from an old family, was knighted by Edward II. in 1324, and on the accession of Edward III. was employed to receive and conduct John of Hainault, who had landed with a considerable force at Dover to assist in an expedition against the Scots. He was afterwards created justice of Chester, governor of Dover Castle, and warden of the Cinque Ports. In 1332 he was called to Parliament among the barons of the realm. In 1333 he was appointed Lord Admiral, and in 1337 created Earl of Huntingdon.

Lord Huntingdon was employed in several important embassies, and displayed great diplomatic ability in concluding some of the alliances by means of which Edward hoped to achieve the conquest of France.

In returning by sea from one of these missions, he captured two Flemish vessels filled with Scotsmen, of whom he took two hundred and fifty prisoners, including the Bishop of Glasgow, and several noble-men's sons.

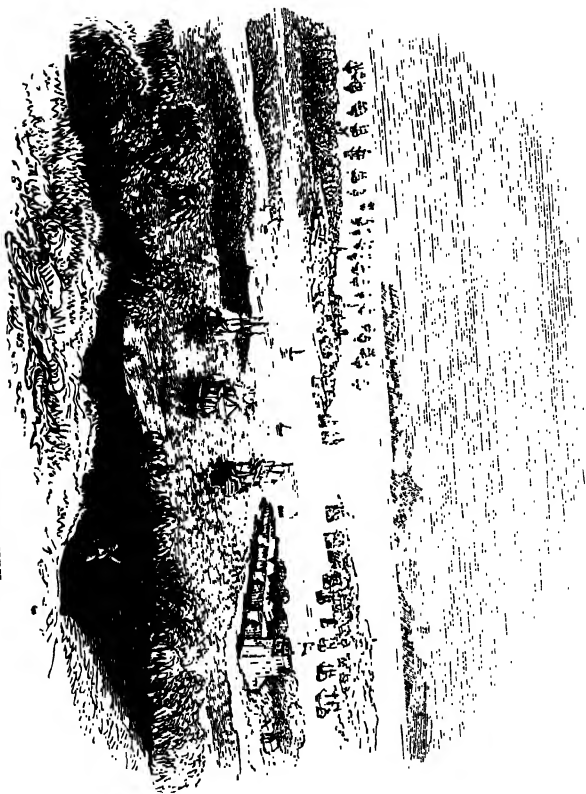
Lord Huntingdon was engaged in the great sea-fight at Sluys, and made an important contribution towards the victory by capturing thirty French ships which attempted to escape.

After a short truce between Edward III. and the King of France, war was again renewed in 1346, when Edward resolved to make a grand attack. He assembled at Portsmouth a fleet of a thousand sail, conveying two thousand five hundred horses and horse-men, and thirty thousand foot soldiers. This great armament was intended for the relief of the king's general, the Earl of Derby, who had been performing many valiant exploits in Guienne during the course of several years. His forces having been much reduced, his prompt relief by a large force became an urgent necessity.

The destination of the intended expedition to Guienne was changed, and with important results. Godfrey de Harcourt, a Norman nobleman, considering himself insulted by the French monarch, became the ally of Edward, and strongly advised him to attack unprepared Normandy, the ancient patrimony of the kings of



England, rather than throw his forces upon Guienne, where a powerful enemy was ready to receive him,—whereas Normandy, invitingly open and temptingly rich, was defenceless. Acting on the advice, Edward sailed from St. Helens with his great fleet on the 10th July 1346, arriving at La Hogue, on the coast of Normandy, on the 12th. Edward's armada would not have met with a welcome at Guienne, but they would not have been quite unexpected there, as they were in Normandy. The vast force landed without opposition. The troops had embarked at Portsmouth about the beginning of June, but had been kept from sailing by unfavourable winds; they had accordingly been rather closely confined for five or six weeks. Poor Normandy! Hapless inhabitants! Two thousand five hundred cavalry and thirty thousand infantry let loose upon them! It would give the Normans an idea of the horrors the visit of their William imposed upon the people of Kent, some three centuries before. These English, who had descended like wolves, remained for about a week near the coast, where they landed, to rest and refresh, after their confinement on shipboard. Lord Huntingdon, seconding the king's military operations, visited a number of the seaports on the coast and destroyed the shipping. The army ravaged the open country, took and plundered the towns, spreading terror and desolation almost up to the gates of Paris. The



PORTSMOUTH IN THE LAST CENTURY,



troops collected an immense amount of booty, which was shipped and sent home with promptitude and despatch. Caen alone afforded treasure sufficient for the full freight of one of the largest ships of the English fleet. In addition, about four hundred of the nobility and gentry, and the most wealthy of the citizens, were captured,—to be held until a heavy ransom was paid for their redemption. It was at the beginning of this campaign, that the renowned Edward, Prince of Wales, known in history as Edward the Black Prince, who was to occupy such a prominent place in the sanguinary war between France and England that followed, entered upon the leading part he was about to take. At the age of sixteen, the gallant youth had the honour of knight-hood conferred upon him by his royal father, upon the sands at La Hogue.

Having conducted his extensive raid, Edward was manoeuvring to get his troops safely out of France, when he found that the bridges over the river Somme, which he desired to cross, were strongly held by Philip, who seemed thus to have caught the English army in a trap. From a prisoner Edward learned that the estuary of the Somme could be crossed at a certain place at low water. The English troops were got across cleverly, within the narrow margin of time available between tides. When Philip came up with his army, the water had risen too high for him to continue the direct

pursuit. He had to take a long, tiresome *détour* by Abbeville. Edward made his way with his forces to the forest of Cressy. The English were well rested and ready for action when Philip and his tired soldiers came up with them on the 26th August 1346. The famous battle of Cressy, description of which is not within our province, followed on the meeting of the opposing armies. The illustrious Black Prince nobly won his spurs by the valour he displayed in the terrible contest. The French were greatly superior in numbers, which made their utter defeat the more humiliating; their loss was enormous. From the King of Bohemia who fell in the action, fighting on the French side, the young Prince of Wales took his crest, the three ostrich feathers, and the motto "ICH DIEN—I serve."

The siege of Calais followed upon the English victory at Cressy. In this operation Huntingdon had the command of the blockading fleet. It comprised seven hundred and thirty-eight sail, of varied character and tonnage; they had on board an aggregate of fifteen thousand seamen. A detailed list of this great fleet is preserved in the British Museum, and another, copied from a roll of the period, is given by Hackluyt. These lists differ slightly in unimportant particulars, and are interesting from the information they supply respecting the state of the Navy at that time, and the inferences they suggest respecting the maritime affairs of other kingdoms.

It appears that the ships in this great fleet had an average of twenty-one men in each, who were engaged and expected to do duty as seamen, not as fighting-men unless in emergency. Oars, or sweeps, were not so much in use as they had been. These considerations suggest the inference that the ships of the fleet that required twenty-one men for their navigation must have been of considerable size. The lists of the fleet disclose another important fact—Of this great fleet only the odd thirty-eight ships were foreigners. Of the seven hundred ships that formed the body of the fleet, it might have been truthfully said or sung—

“Hearts of oak are our ships,  
English tars are our men.”

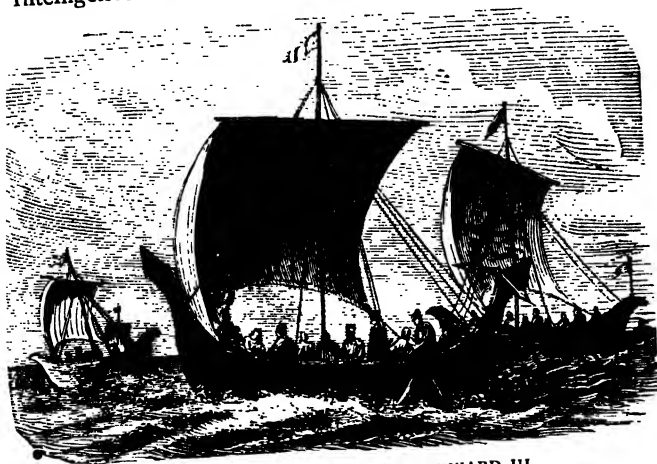
As a naval power England was self-dependent; France, on the contrary, was obliged to rely in the time of need upon Genoa and other maritime powers for help. The fleet commanded by Lord Huntingdon, it further appears from the list referred to, was made up of contributions from the cities, towns, boroughs, and the Cinque Ports of England, and their respective proportions give evidence of their comparative opulence or loyalty. The king contributed 25 ships and 419 seamen; the 38 foreign vessels were also hired, probably at the king's expense. The city of London furnished only 25 ships, but these must have been larger than the king's ships, seeing that they carried 662 men, or an average

of 26 men in each. Even Fowey, in Cornwall, surpassed London in ability, or liberality, for it sent 47 ships and 770 men. Shoreham also sent more ships than London, but they must have been small, as they had only 329 mariners, which would only give 13 men each to 25 ships—the number contributed by London. Bristol provided 24 comparatively large ships, with 608 men. Winchelsea sent 21 ships and 596 men, or 28 men to each ship. Yarmouth excelled all other places in the number and magnitude of the vessels contributed; it sent 43 ships, with 1905 seamen, or an average of 44 to each vessel.

Supplies by both sea and land being thus cut off, the gallant defenders of Calais, after a resistance of eleven months, were at last starved into submission. After the surrender of Calais, a truce was, by the intervention of the pope, concluded between England and France for three years. During the currency of the truce, the French violated its terms, and by dishonourable means attempted to regain Calais. The forces engaged in this attempt were disastrously defeated.

In November 1349 an event occurred that called for prompt and energetic action on the part of England. Notwithstanding that England and Spain were at peace at the time, a squadron of Spanish ships sailed up the Garonne, where, at Bordeaux, they fell in with a number of English vessels laden with wine. They plundered

and then sank the ships, and barbarously murdered their crews. The king and the English people, especially those interested in maritime affairs, were highly incensed at this act of perfidy and rapacity, and arrangements were promptly made for reprisals. Intelligence was received that a number of Spanish



EARLY ENGLISH SHIPS. TIME, EDWARD III.

ships were returning from Flanders. A fleet of fifty ships was collected at Sandwich, and placed under the command of the Earl of Huntingdon, the special object of the expedition being the capture of the Spanish ships. Edward himself did not disdain to take a part in this enterprise, in which he was joined by the Prince of Wales and many of the nobility.



On the 25th of August the English fleet fell in with the enemy, which consisted of forty-four Spanish carracks, of extraordinary large size. The English at once attacked the Spaniards, who defended themselves with obstinate bravery. The Spaniards were completely defeated, but refused the quarter they were offered. The height of their ships gave them a great advantage over their adversaries, but this did not avail against the superiority of the English archers. The shades of evening enabled about twenty of the Spanish vessels to creep out of the conflict, and sheer off in the darkness. Twenty-four of the great carracks, laden with woollen cloth and valuable merchandise, were captured by the English, and triumphantly towed into port.

This exploit, which is more fully described on page 193, was pronounced highly creditable to Lord Huntingdon, the commander. In commemoration of the event, Edward had a gold coin struck. On this coin was a representation of the king in armour, with a drawn sword in his hand. In the inscription he was designated 'The Avenger of the Merchants.'

The Earl of Huntingdon during almost all his public life had close personal relations with King Edward, and stood high in his favour. A money gift, as reward for distinguished naval and military services rendered by Lord Huntingdon in France and at sea, was a sum—magnificent at that time—of £823, 12s. 4d.

Lord Huntingdon, after having served with distinction in several important embassies, retired from public service in 1351. He died, with an honourable record and an untarnished name, at Maxstoke, Warwickshire, on the 23rd August 1354.

## EDWARD III. AND HIS ADMIRAL ROBERT DE MORLEY.



### CHAPTER XVI.

“KING OF THE SEA.”

THE young King Edward III. entered upon his reign under difficult and depressing circumstances. His father, Edward II., was assassinated in a peculiarly horrible and atrocious manner at Berkeley Castle. His mother, Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. of France, and Lord Mortimer, assumed the regency, Edward, heir to the throne, being only fourteen years of age. They governed according to their own wicked wills, the power of the twelve lords who constituted a council of regency being only nominal.

The spirited young king promptly seized the opening that presented itself for service in the battlefield. The Scots, elated by their victory at Bannockburn, were following it up by an invasion of the north of England.

The Scottish host consisted of a mob of border raiders, mounted on ponies, shaggy but fleet and sure-footed. Each man carried his own provender, a bag of oatmeal, until he could replenish his portable larder with something more delicate, at the expense of the enemy. These nimble caterans knew and cared nothing about parades and field movements; the trial of strength in pitched battles was not their present purpose; they were collecting supplies, after a somewhat irregular method. The English army, led by the young king, went forth in all "the pomp and circumstance of glorious war." It was ludicrous; the knights, in their complete but cumbersome armour, were played with, and laughed at, by the enemy's light cavalry. The Scots buzzed about like hornets, and were as difficult to catch as flies. Twice the forces came very near each other, on the opposite banks of the Wear. On one of these occasions the daring Douglas made a sudden night attack on the English, and very nearly succeeded in carrying off the young king. The English returned without having driven back the Scots, or done anything to check their aggression. The rumour prevailed in the English camp, and elsewhere, that Mortimer had accepted a bribe from the Scots. Mortimer was soon after tried by his peers, convicted of murder, usurpation, and embezzlement, and was hanged at Tyburn in 1330.

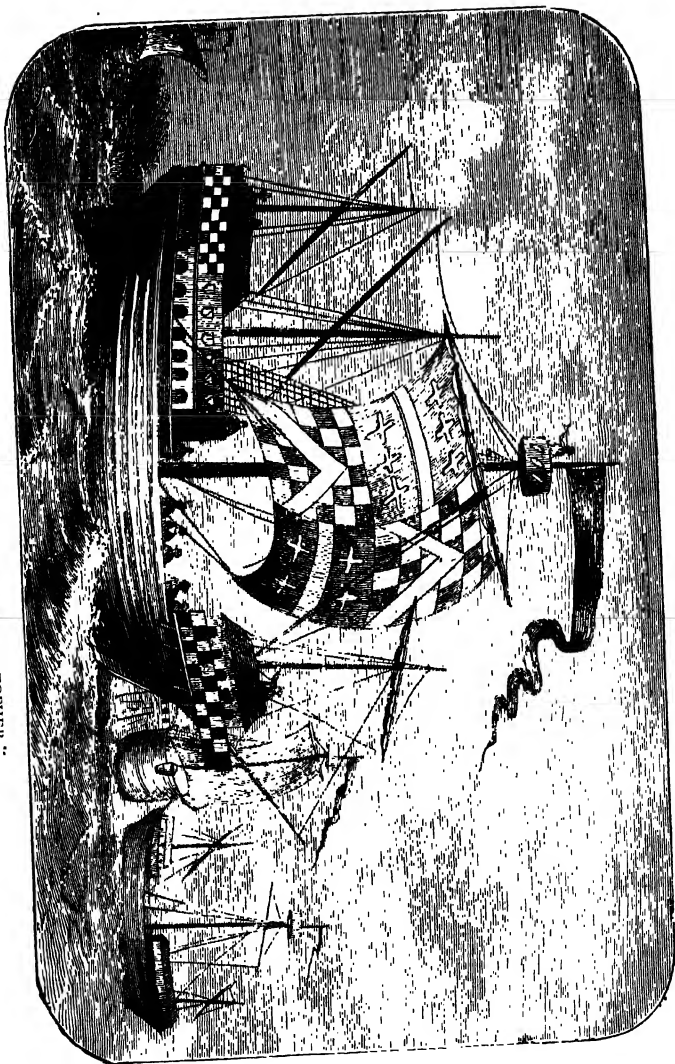
On the death of the last of the three sons of Philip of

France without heirs, Edward III., as son of Isabella, Philip's sister, laid claim to the crown of France, and prepared for the invasion of the country. The first action in the war that ensued was fought in 1337, and was at Cadsunt, an island between Sluys and Flushing. The invading force was conveyed from the Thames by the famous Sir Walter Manny. The Flemings and French who manned the port defended it with great bravery, but were at last compelled to retire from the deadly flight of arrows—clothyard shafts showered upon them by the English bowmen. Cadsunt, now only an islet, was then of considerable size; the shore where the battle was fought has been long since swept away by the sea.

The war continued to be marked by detached enterprises. French ships ravaged the Channel, and inflicted serious damage upon some of the ports on the south coast, seizing, and either destroying or carrying off as prizes, all the English merchantmen that came in their way. Two English wool-ships from Flanders, the *Edward* and the *Christopher*, attacked by a fleet of thirteen armed ships, fought bravely against this overwhelming odds for nine hours, and only surrendered when their men were completely prostrated by wounds and weariness.

The mariners of the Cinque Ports were not idle or uninterested spectators of the doings of the enemy who

THE "EDWARD" AND THE "CHRISTOPHER."





had devastated Hastings, burned Plymouth, and had even gone round as far as Bristol. There was no English fleet at home to protect the coast. There were, however, small craft and a remnant of men left in the Cinque Ports, and the men determined to attempt revenge, if they might not secure reprisals. Advantage was taken by the mariners of a thick fog to run over to Boulogne, where, in the way of revenge, they burned the lower part of the town, together with the dock and arsenal filled with stores, destroyed four large ships, nineteen galleys, and twenty smaller vessels, and returned to their several home ports without having lost a man.

From his accession the king had manifested a very lively interest in the nation's means of attack and defence at sea, and in naval actions as well as military enterprises Edward III. highly distinguished himself by his skill and bravery. He was careful to have men of sound judgment and proved fidelity and valour as his companions and counsellors. Robert De Morley, a descendant of William De Morley, a valiant soldier under Edward I., stood deservedly high in the king's favour. Robert De Morley was a sailor rather than a soldier, but although it was so, and the expedition against the marauding Scots offered no opening for marine action, Edward had faith in De Morley's judgment, and in his devoted attachment to his person and interest, and took him with him to the



North. De Morley's opportunity for rendering eminent service came later.

Into the military campaigns of Edward in France it is not within our province to enter, but rather to chronicle the glorious achievements that led his admiring subjects to apply to him the proud title of "King of the Sea."

Edward returned from France in 1340, his finances utterly exhausted. He disbanded the army he was no longer able to support. He summoned a new Parliament, and laid before them an affecting statement of his necessities. He told them that without liberal supply his designs would be ruined, and himself dishonoured, that he was obliged to go to Brussels, to stay there till he could pay off the debts he had contracted. Edward must have had a sweet, persuasive tongue to have been as successful in the Forum as in the field. A most liberal supply was immediately voted for two years, amounting to a ninth of agricultural produce and other portable property, with a considerable addition to the customs and other taxes. In consideration of this generous supply, the king voluntarily surrendered his claim to certain sums to which he was entitled under the feudal system, for the purpose of making his son a knight, and of supplying a marriage portion for his daughter.

An excellent understanding continuing between the king and his affectionate and loyal subjects, he again

prepared to embark for the continent ; for this purpose he collected a fleet of forty sail in the Orwell, Suffolk. The queen and the royal children were at Ghent, and the head of the family was anxious to pay them a visit. He was about putting to sea when information was sent to him by the Archbishop of Canterbury, his prime minister, that Philip had, with all possible secrecy, assembled a fleet of four hundred ships at Sluys, for the express purpose of attacking and of capturing Edward on his passage. The minister wisely advised the king not to venture to carry out his intention with such a perilously inadequate force. The king's impatience overmastered his judgment, and he declared his determination to sail at all hazards, whereupon the minister resigned his office, and delivered the seals of office into the king's own hands. This serious result checked the king's impetuosity, and led him to think that the advice he had received was entitled to fuller consideration than he had given to it. He commissioned Robert De Morley, his admiral and confidential adviser, to make inquiry concerning the grounds upon which the archbishop had based his warning. De Morley, with the assistance of Sir John Crabbe, a skilful and experienced seaman, after searching inquiry, confirmed the intelligence and advice of the archbishop. Irritated and mortified in being arrested in his project, the king accused Morley of being in collusion with the archbishop to prevent the success

of his expedition. "You have agreed," said he, "to tell me this tale to stop my voyage." He added angrily, "I will go, and you, timid where there is no ground for fear, may stay at home. I shall do without you." De Morley



EDWARD III.

was hurt by this unmerited imputation—that his loyalty and his courage should be doubted; he told the king that he would stake his head upon the accuracy of the information and the soundness of the advice he had given, and his firm belief that if the king went forth with

such a force against the enemy they had to encounter, he and all who accompanied him would be inevitably destroyed. With dignity De Morley addressed the king, "I know my duty too well to abandon your majesty in any undertaking, however difficult or hazardous. If it be your majesty's pleasure to lead to captivity, or even to certain death, I will follow without a murmur, and use my utmost endeavours to obtain a success for which reason forbids me to hope." The king felt that he had wronged his faithful servant in blaming him for giving him the information and advice it was his bounden duty to give, and which it would have been criminal to have withheld. Edward manfully admitted that he had been wrong, and relinquished the enterprise, with the defective means at his command. Edward prevailed upon the archbishop to resume office, and proceeded forthwith to augment his naval power.

The Cinque Ports, as related, furnished the nucleus of a navy when there was occasion for its services; on great occasions the whole mercantile marine was laid under contribution. A royal proclamation was issued, requiring all ships belonging to English subjects, where-soever they might be at the time, to repair with their crews to join the king or his admiral at an appointed place of rendezvous. This was the method of reinforcement adopted by Edward on the advice of his minister. The call was met with promptitude and zeal on the part of owners and crews and all others concerned; in less than

ten days he was placed in possession of a fleet as large as he desired. The response to his call was so hearty and general that many of the archers and fighting men who offered service were sent home again.

The fleet thus collected, added to the forty ships that the king had assembled in the Orwell, numbered two hundred and sixty sail. Sir Robert De Morley was admiral of the fleet ; the king personally commanded the troops on board. They sailed on the 22nd June 1340, and on Midsummer Day arrived before Sluys or L'Ecluse, a well-fortified place, situated on a bay of the North Sea, at the mouth of the river Scheldt. Here was fought one of the most obstinate, sanguinary, and gigantic naval battles known in history up to that period.

The French fleet was commanded by two experienced admirals—Hugh Quiéret and Peter Bahuchet. Some historians attribute to the king such merit as may attach to arrangement of the order of this great battle. Doubtless the arrangements were determined by the king acting in concert of judgment with De Morley, his able and trusted admiral. The English would have attacked the enemy at once in their harbour, but when they got close enough, they discovered that the ships were lashed together with chains to prevent their line of battle being broken. On perceiving this the English drew off, and stood out to sea for a short distance. This movement was misunderstood by the French admirals, and caused a

dispute between them. Quiéret believed that the English, seeing the superior force of their antagonists, were retreating, and, against the advice of his colleague, went out in pursuit. De Morley, seeing the French fleet put to sea, manœuvred so successfully as to gain the wind, and the sun also, which was almost equally important. The king had despatched Lord Cobham to reconnoitre and bring him a report of the strength of the enemy. The report of Cobham was not probably an understatement. Edward was not frightened, but, on the contrary, exclaimed, “By the assistance of God and St. George, I will now revenge all the wrongs I have received.” What the wrongs were that he had to revenge, must be left to conjecture. This seemed a war of aggression on Edward’s part.

The English fleet was drawn up in two lines. Concerning the order of battle, Schomberg says that “Edward gave the necessary directions for forming his line and the mode of attack with as much dexterity as if he had been bred to the sea.” The first line consisted of the largest and stoutest ships of the English fleet. Between every two ships filled with archers, there was one placed that carried men-at-arms for boarding the enemy; the ships in the wings also carried full complements of archers. The second line of the English was a reserve, and intended to serve as a magazine from which supplies could be drawn for the support of the front.

The battle began at about eight o'clock in the morning. The French sent forward the *Great Christopher*, the prize they had taken from the English in the preceding year, to break, if they could, the English line. It must have been a grand and lively scene. The French advanced with songs and shouts, and inspired by the strains of martial music. The English received them with characteristic intrepidity, and answered the music and shouting by hearty hurrahs. The superiority of the English seamen soon made itself evident, by the skill and rapidity with which they handled their ships, bearing down upon the enemy, or disengaging themselves, as best suited them. A mode of attack that had prevailed up to that time was to run alongside the ships of the enemy, and to carry away the great oars, or sweeps, by which many of the ships were wholly or partially propelled. The English did not trust to sweeps in this action, but manœuvred with great skill and rapidity by the sails alone.

The arms and weapons used by the combatants were of a rude and primitive character, and included, on the part of the French, a species of engine from which they discharged great stones upon their enemy. The aim was, of course, very wide, but when they did make a hit, it was crushing. The English dependence was upon their archers, the most expert in Europe, whose aim was good and their shafts deadly. They had also their



ENGLISH SHIPS OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.





men-at-arms furnished with swords, axes, spears, and clubs. The *Great Christopher* was speedily recaptured, filled with archers, and sent, with tremendous effect, against those who were her owners at the beginning of the fight. The fleets engaged at close quarters; and in every respect the English proved their superiority. No quarter was given, and many of the French, dismayed by the superior tactics and fierce valour of the English, galled to madness by the tormenting shower of arrows leaped overboard, and were miserably drowned, to escape what seemed inevitable death in another form.

After a contest of the most terrible and obstinate character, which lasted till seven in the evening, the French were hopelessly shattered and completely defeated all along the line. Two hundred of their ships fell into the hands of the English. The French Admiral Quiéret was killed in the action, and the survivors were so much incensed against Bahuchet, the other admiral, that they hung him up at the yard-arm. The loss of the French in this action was computed at the enormous number of thirty thousand men! The French fleet had forty thousand soldiers on board in addition to the mariners. The English loss did not exceed four thousand, but even this number is equal to the total population of what would in those days have been considered a large and important town. In addition, a large ship, a galley from Hull, and a third vessel, were

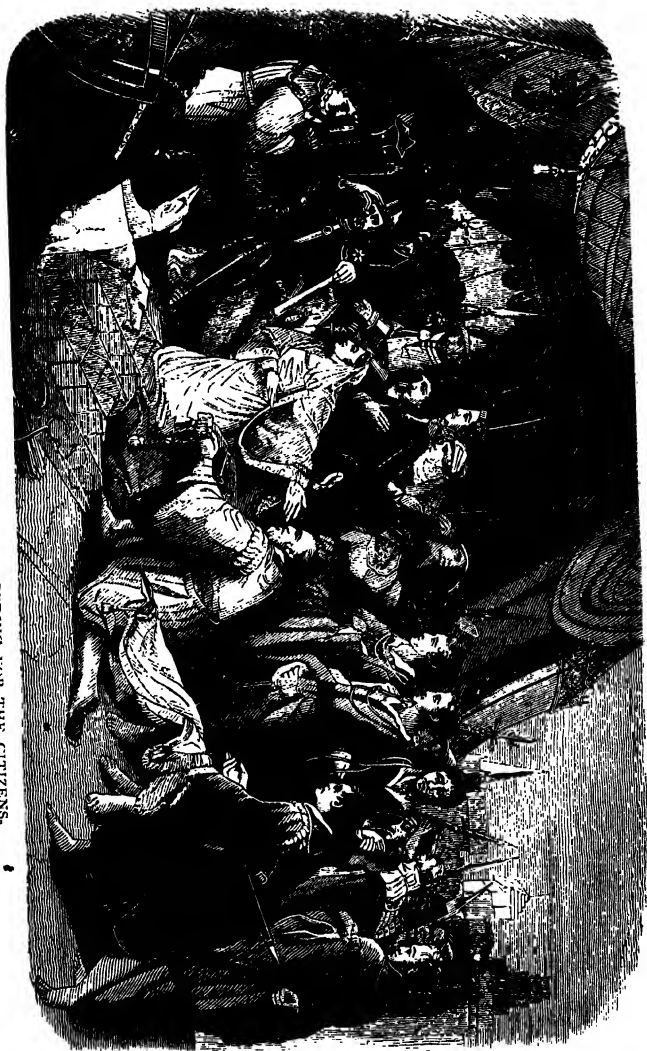
sunk by volleys of stones, all on board going down with them.

A part of the enemy's force consisted of a number of Genoese ships, commanded by a skilled admiral, Barbarini, who exhibited the greatest ability of any of the commanders on the side of the French. After fighting valiantly, until it was clear that utter defeat was inevitable, he contrived to draw out of the action and escape with what was left of his squadron. Thirty sail of the French—relics of the great fleet—attempted to escape in the night, but were intercepted and captured by a part of the English fleet under the Earl of Huntingdon. On the day after the battle the victorious king, with his conquering fleet and captives, entered the harbour of Sluys in triumph.

The news of this important achievement was received in England with great joy, and increased supplies were provided with alacrity for the king's service. In France the intelligence occasioned great depression and sorrow; the courtiers were in such consternation that they dared not communicate the unwelcome tidings to Philip. The truth was disclosed to him under a ridiculous mask by the court jester. He called the English cowards again and again, and when asked the reason, said, "Because they had not the courage to leap into the sea like the French and Normans."

The capture of Calais, which took place later, and

CAPTURE OF CALAIS: THE QUEEN INTERCEDING FOR THE CITIZENS.





after the battle of Cressy, was an event of naval and military importance. The king himself lay before Calais, which, after a siege that lasted almost a year, was surrendered to him. The besieged, unable longer to withstand him, sued for peace, which was granted on this condition : they were to send to King Edward six of their chief burgesses, bare-headed, bare-footed, in their shirts, halters about their necks, and the keys of the town and castle in their hands. When the intelligence was conveyed to Calais, the inhabitants were struck with consternation. While they found themselves incapable of coming to any resolution in so cruel and distressful a situation, one of the principal citizens, called Eustace de St. Pierre, stepped forth and declared himself willing to suffer death for the safety of his friends and companions ; another made a like offer. The whole number was soon completed. They submitted themselves on their knees to the conqueror. The king commanded them to be executed immediately, against the advice and entreaty of his council ; nor could he be dissuaded from his resolution of hanging them till his queen begged their lives on her knees, and in tears. The queen had them conveyed to her tent, ordered a repast to be set before them, and, after making them a present of money and clothes, dismissed them in safety.

In 1350 King Edward took part in another spirited naval action. Spain had come into collision with

England on the high seas. Don Carlos was understood to be in the harbour of Sluys, where Edward had been before. The sailors of all nations had strong piratical proclivities in those days. Some Spanish ships had been taking great liberties with English ships and cargoes, and Edward determined to let them know how costly and dangerous such liberties might turn out. He took on board his fleet of fifty ships at Sandwich his valiant son, the Black Prince, and a number of nobles of high degree, and, lifting anchors, cruised about for two or three days. On a tranquil evening, robed in black velvet, the king sat in state on the lofty forecastle, surrounded by his courtiers, listening to the music discoursed by the ship's band, when the lookout at the mast-head shouted that he spied strange sails. The trumpets rang out the call to arms; the ships drew up in battle array; the knights donned their helmets, and buckled on their armour. About forty enormous Spanish carracks, that towered high above the English ships, bore proudly down upon their diminutive vessels, as if they would simply put them under water by riding over them. The Spaniards had great castles filled with flints upon their masts, and were jauntily adorned with coloured streamers that fluttered in the breeze. Edward by some means struck the mast of one of the largest ships, and down it came, castle, artillery, and artillery-men, to the destruction of that

ship ; but Edward's own ship sprung a leak also, and he and his crew had to choose another ship for safety. Stones and bars of iron were showered upon the sinking English ship,—doing terrible damage. The royal crew swung themselves on board the enemy, and cleared it of its Spanish crew by flinging them overboard. The men in the castles on the masts of the Spaniards were soon picked off by the English archers. Seventeen of the Spanish ships fell into the hands of the English, whose loss was comparatively light,—only one knight of eminence being killed. The battle was anxiously watched by a large number of spectators on the heights behind Winchelsea and Rye. Darkness brought the combat to a close. The Spaniards who escaped capture sheered off during the night, and in the morning were all out of sight.

This was the last and crowning naval action in which Edward III. took a prominent part, although during his sovereignty his valiant son, Edward, the Black Prince, highly distinguished himself as a warrior in great battles both on sea and land.

Sir Robert De Morley continued admiral of the fleet, and was a good deal employed in the conveyance of troops and in protecting the English coast. While in command of the Cinque Port fleet, he ravaged the coasts of Normandy, burned sixty ships, and five towns and villages.



He attended Edward in all his wars, and served the king personally at the famous battle of Cressy, fought on the 26th of August 1346. His whole life was spent in active service, and, besides being constantly returned to Parliament, he was appointed constable of the Tower of London, and named in several important commissions for the defence of the kingdom.

He died in 1360 in France, when in attendance upon his valiant and grateful sovereign, by whom he was highly esteemed.

# JOHN PHILPOT.



## CHAPTER XVII.

MERCHANT, CITIZEN, AND NAVAL COMMANDER.

**R**ICHARD II., son of the illustrious Black Prince, was greatly inferior to his sire in valour, prudence, patriotism, and other ennobling qualities. The prince died before his father, Edward III., who, deferring to the desire of his subjects, declared Richard his grandson his lawful successor. Edward died in 1377, and Richard was then only eleven years of age. He was, notwithstanding his youth, universally acknowledged and accepted as sovereign, and crowned with stately pomp and gorgeous ceremonies.

To act as a regency in the government of the kingdom during Richard's minority, twelve permanent counsellors were nominated by the bishops and the barons, to assist the Chancellor and the State Treasurer. Before the death of Edward, the war with France, which

had been smouldering, not extinguished, broke out afresh. To the attacks made upon our coasts the Regency scarcely made even a show of resistance. In 1378, John of Gaunt became commander of the fleet. He placed a squadron under the Earl of Arundel and Surrey, which suffered much loss from an attack of the Spaniards in crossing; but it captured afterwards the town of Cherbourg. A Spanish fleet of merchandise, laden with corn and other goods, was also captured, and Brest was taken. The possession of Cherbourg and Brest was a great advantage; but generally the naval war was not carried on with much spirit. There were many disasters. The French and the Scots were permitted to make violent attacks, and commit devastating depredations on both land and sea. The French pillaged the Isle of Wight, and sacked and burned Plymouth, Dartmouth, Portsmouth, Rye, and Hastings. They made a descent upon Dover, from which they carried off all the booty they could collect, destroying what they could not take away. In 1378, Mercer, a Scottish freebooter, with a considerable force of reckless and daring fellows under his command, ravaged the eastern coast of England, and took all the English ships they fell in with which they were strong enough to overpower.

The French war, which had lasted with slight intermissions for forty years, had exhausted the State treasury, necessitated oppressive taxation, and caused

PLYMOUTH IN THE OLD DAYS.



bitter discontent among the people. Out of the discontent arose Wat Tyler, John Ball, and Jack Straw, and the formidable insurrectionary riots in which they were the leaders.

Happily, however, if the Regency was apathetic or heedless of the honour and interests of the country, the spirit of patriotism was not everywhere extinct. John Philpot, a noble, patriotic merchant citizen of London, determined to risk his fortune in a bold attempt to clear the coasts of the pirates that were infesting them, without interference from the Government. Philpot got together a fleet, manned it with a thousand sailors and fighting men, and, accompanying the expedition himself, went in search of the Scottish pirate Mercer. In the North Sea Philpot fell in with Mercer's piratical ships, which were encumbered by the number of prizes they had in tow. Mercer made an obstinate but ineffectual resistance ; he was taken prisoner, and the English vessels that had fallen into his hands were recaptured, and, in addition, a number of richly-laden French and Spanish ships.

Philpot's associates in this honourable expedition awarded to him, as its originator and largest owner, fifteen Spanish vessels, with their cargoes, as indemnity for the expense and risk he had incurred. The Government that had so signally failed in its duty as the protector of the country's interests and of the national honour, had the unspeakable meanness to

contest Philpot's right and title to appropriate this well-earned guerdon for his noble public service. The puerile pretext they put forward was that Philpot had levied and employed forces without Government authority. For this alleged offence the brave citizen Philpot was actually arrested and imprisoned. The charge was so palpably base and unjust that Philpot's enemies dare not risk a public investigation, but caused him to be examined before the Privy Council. He answered all interrogatories, and gave information and explanations, with so much wisdom and discretion, and conducted himself with so much spirit and dignity withal, that the inquiry, instead of being followed by punishment, as had been threatened, ended in his receiving what should have been heartily and ungrudgingly awarded him from the first—public thanks for his noble, patriotic conduct.

John Philpot lived to enjoy the esteem of his fellow-citizens, who, without envy or jealousy, rejoiced in his being permitted to enjoy his wealth most honourably acquired by his having abandoned his ordinary vocation, and having risked his all, to take upon himself the highly honourable function of being the protector of the interests and the avenger of the wrongs of his fellow-citizens.

Philpot's name and service are perpetuated to this day in the name of a well-known street in the heart of the city of London.

It was at this period that the great Wycliffe movement took place in England. Wycliffe translated the Bible, denounced the ecclesiastical abuses of the time, and sent forth many lay preachers. His Bible was proscribed; his followers were persecuted; but his influence continued to be felt to the time of the Reformation. The illustration is from a copy of his Bible.



RICHARD NEVILLE,  
EARL OF WARWICK.

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CHAPTER XVIII.

“THE KING-MAKER.”

**H**ENRY V., the victor at the famous battle of Agincourt, fought 25th October 1415, died at Vincennes, in France, on the 31st August 1422, aged thirty-four years. His remains were brought home and deposited in Westminster Abbey. The deceased king's son and successor, Henry VI., was an infant of less than a year old on his succession, and the affairs of the State devolved upon John, Duke of Bedford, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, brothers of the late king; and Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, afterwards Cardinal, their uncle.

Henry V. was engaged during the greater portion of his short and victorious reign in war with France, and the period was not signalised by any naval actions of



consequence. The Navy had, however, been maintained in a fairly effective condition. The time had not yet arrived when the naval profession provided exclusive employment for the great men of the period. There



HENRY V.

were no admirals, pure and simple, in those days. Without saying that they were "everything by turns and nothing long," it may be said with truth of many of the leading men in the State, that they filled from time to time various high offices that would be

considered incompatible now, and undertook services affecting the interests of the nation,—from what motive, or with what end in view, it is not within our province to inquire,—such as are never undertaken nowadays by one and the same individual. The same prominent personage of that time, if all the salient points of his history are to be exhibited, may have to be followed into the battlefield, where he distinguishes himself as a general; to the high seas, where he displays his tact and courage as an admiral; to the cabinet council, where he shows his wisdom as a statesman; to the foreign court, where he shines as a diplomatist; and, further, we can only speculate upon the means he employs and the influence he exercises in spheres into which we cannot follow him, as an intriguer. Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, combined all the offices, functions, and operations just indicated. To his actions as admiral to Henry VI. we desire, as much as possible, to confine attention. It seems in place, however, to remark in passing that an adequate conception concerning the character of the Earl of Warwick, and of the events dealt with, justify a relaxation of our rule in this instance.

Gilbert de Neville, from whom Richard Neville was descended, "came over with the Conqueror" about three hundred and sixty years before Richard was born. Gilbert, the Norman, was admiral to the Conqueror, as

Richard, his descendant, afterwards became to a future king of England.

The knights and barons who came over with William belonged to the "help myself society." They helped themselves to the best lands in the kingdom, irrespective of previous ownership or occupation, whether sacred or secular. They acted pretty much upon the robbers' simple plan, that—

" They shall take who have the power,  
And they shall keep who can."

The Norman nobility married and intermarried with each other, their blood in some instances mingling even with that of royalty. This, in the absence of an explicit and accepted order of succession to the throne, gave scope for rival ambitions, state intrigues, and civil wars, such as was waged between the houses of York and Lancaster, known in history as the "Wars of the Roses,"—the white rose being the emblem of the Yorkists, and the red rose that of the Lancastrians.

The Nevilles were one of the most dignified and influential families of the time. Already earls of Westmoreland and Salisbury, and connected with the highest families of the country, Richard, to the other dignities and possessions of his house, added in 1449 those of the earldom of Warwick, by his marriage with Anne, daughter and heir of Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick.

He was also first cousin of Edward (Yorkist), afterwards Edward IV.

Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, like his father, the Earl of Salisbury, was ambitious in his desire to exercise a prevailing influence in ruling the kingdom. His immense possessions and wealth enabled him to cultivate very largely a certain kind of popularity. He probably believed that the road to the affectionate attachment of many was by the way of the stomach. He exercised the most prodigal hospitality. The ancient chroniclers say of his housekeeping that six oxen were usually eaten at breakfast at his house, and that the taverns were "full of his meat." Any friend or acquaintance of any of his retainers was allowed to appropriate as much roast or boiled meat from his table as he could carry away on his long dagger. His munificence, and the influence derived from his family connections, made him one of the foremost and most powerful nobles of his time.

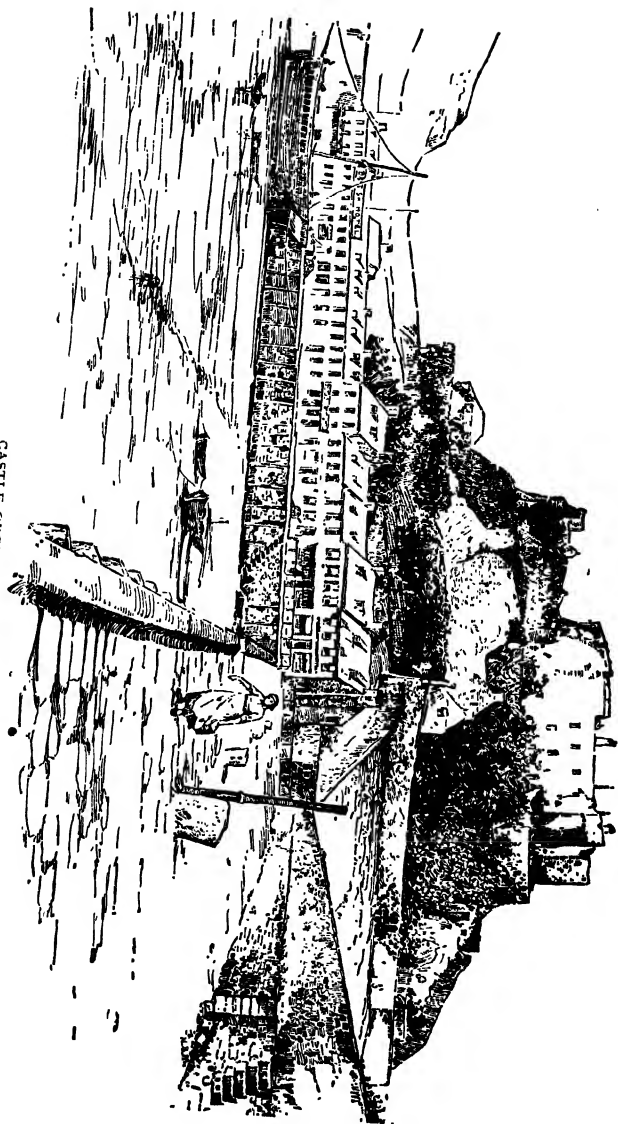
Henry VI., so long a minor, was of weak mind, and not responsible for the conduct of national affairs, which devolved upon the council and regents. During Henry's minority and the earlier years of his reign, the whole of the English acquisitions in France, excepting Calais and the appurtenances of the Channel Islands, were lost. Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, did during that time valiant service for her country, which

merited better guerdon than the barbarity of execution at the hands of the English. Jack Cade, *alias* Mortimer, caused considerable trouble at home by the insurrection in Kent which he headed. He had a more appropriate death than that of Joan of Arc, being slain among the apple-trees of a Sussex orchard.

In the year 1445, Henry VI. was married to Margaret of Anjou, a princess of great energy, much more fit to rule than her husband. The incapable king committed himself entirely to the management of the queen and her favourites. Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, "the Good Duke Humphrey," as the people designated him, who had never concealed his dislike to the French marriage, was overthrown by the influence of the queen, assisted by the Duke of Suffolk and other intriguers. Duke Humphrey died suddenly at Bury St. Edmunds in 1447.

A lengthened period followed of state intrigues and contention, in the course of which Suffolk, who was hated by the people, was captured, when on his way to Calais, and beheaded on board a war-ship. The king having relapsed into insanity, a strong hand was needed to hold the reins of power. The Duke of Somerset and Richard, Duke of York, each contended for the Protectorship. Somerset was supported by the queen, York by some of the most powerful nobles of the land. The War of the Roses was a contention of

CASTLE ORQUELL. F. DEEV



nobles, in which the people manifested but slight interest.

The first battle was fought at St. Albans on the 22nd May 1455, when the Lancastrians were defeated, and the king, who had partially recovered from his insanity, was taken prisoner. The government of the country now devolved upon the Duke of York. Among the five thousand slain of the Lancastrians were many persons of distinction, including the Duke of Somerset, the Earl of Northumberland, the Earl of Stafford, and Lord Clifford. The victory of the Yorkists at St. Albans was chiefly due to Warwick, whose keen eye detected a weak point, by which a way was forced into the town. The immediate results of the battle of St. Albans were the elevation of York to be Protector, Salisbury to be Chancellor, and Warwick to be Governor of Calais,—the most honourable military command of the Government. Warwick's post was one of extraordinary importance at that time. It gave him the supreme, undivided command of the only regular military force then maintained by the Crown, and it afforded him a harbour wherein he might securely collect the selected power of the Navy. Over the Navy Warwick's influence was unprecedented. He had been appointed High Admiral, and was styled the "Great Captain of the sea." Parliament allowed to him the whole of certain duties arising from tonnage and poundage, and

granted him also £1000 per annum from the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Shortly after entering on his government of Calais, Warwick put to sea in order to prevent any succour from France being sent to Henry. While cruising with this object, he fell in with five large richly laden ships,—three Genoese and two Spanish. He attacked, and, after a sharp action, took them, and sold the cargoes for £10,000. King Henry tried all he could do to draw Warwick away from Calais, but without success. He summoned him to London to account for the produce of his late capture, and even sent the young Duke of Somerset to supersede Warwick in his command. The inhabitants of Calais refused to obey the royal order. The king next ordered Lord Rivers, whom he had appointed his admiral, to collect all available ships remaining, organise them into a fleet at Sandwich, and proceed with it to Calais, and, if possible, force Warwick out of his station. The earl turned the tables upon the king by despatching Sir John Denham, a valiant and experienced officer, to Sandwich, with as powerful a naval force as he could put together. Rivers, and the fleet under his command, were taken by surprise, captured, and taken to Calais in triumph. The commander of the fleet who took out the young Duke of Somerset to supersede Warwick at Calais, was induced by this success to



regard the cause of the earl as the winning side, he revolted from the king, and entered Warwick's service.

After the defeat sustained by his friends at Blorekeath, 23rd September 1459, the Duke of York took refuge in Ireland, where he was very popular. Warwick resorted thither for conference with him. As a result of their conference, Warwick returned to England, without the hindrance that the Duke of Exeter, commanding a fleet on behalf of the king, might have offered if he had felt strong enough. Exeter could not rely upon the loyalty or hearty courage of the men under his command whereas Warwick was idolised by both soldiers and sailors. The earl landed at Sandwich in June 1460. He had taken wise precautions to secure success before taking decisive action. He had used all means open to him of diminishing the forces opposed to him, and of augmenting those under his own command. He surprised a fleet under the command of Sir Simon Montfort, Warden of the Cinque Ports, that had been designed to thwart him in his operations, and sent it over to Calais. The earl was not over scrupulous. He deceived the people and many influential men among them, and induced them to join him, by swearing allegiance to Henry at the cross of Canterbury. With a powerful force that he had collected, he encountered the king's troops at Northampton, where a bloody and decisive battle was fought on the 10th July 1460. Under a rain so heavy

that the royal cannon could not be fired, the strong earth-banks of the Lancastrian camp were scaled by the White Roses, who drove the routed foe into the swollen Nen. Many nobles perished. Somerset escaped, as did Margaret and her little boy, who found shelter first in Wales, and then in Scotland. Henry thus fell into the hands of the Yorkists, who conducted him captive to London.

The Duke of York now made a formal claim to the crown, resting it on his descent from Lionel, a son of Edward III., older than John of Gaunt. Parliament decreed that Henry should be allowed to wear the crown for his life, and that the successor should be York or his heir. An Act of Settlement to this effect was passed, but Margaret of Anjou, every inch a queen, would have no such settlement, and, arousing her friends in the North, took the field as the champion of her disinherited son. She returned from Scotland with a band of resolute supporters. Some of the barons in the north of England espoused her cause. The Duke of York, who was at Sendal Castle keeping his Christmas holiday, with a hastily collected and inadequate force, rashly precipitated a conflict, on the 30th December 1460, at Wakefield Green. In this action the Yorkists were completely defeated. The Duke of York was slain; the Earl of Salisbury, father of Warwick, was taken prisoner, and publicly executed by the queen's order. The heads of

York and Salisbury, adorned in mockery with paper crowns, were fixed above the gates of the city of York. The victorious queen, marching towards London, met at



MARGARET OF ANJOU.

St. Albans another division of the Yorkists, under the command of the Earl of Warwick. Another battle ensued, in which the queen was again victorious.

The Duke of York who fell at Wakefield left a gallant son, Edward, nineteen years of age, whose charms of face, person, and manners captivated all who saw him. Although his father had never worn the crown, he boldly claimed it as his birthright. Continuing her march to London after her victory over Warwick at St. Albans, Margaret met with the young Duke of York approaching from another direction. At Mortimer's Cross, Herefordshire, on the 2nd February 1461, the young king presumptive gained a decided victory over Queen Margaret, who, with the remains of her routed forces, again sought refuge in the North. Edward proceeded in triumph to London, where he was received with joyous acclamation, and declared king by the title of Edward IV.

Margaret remained unsubdued, and there was further fighting in the North, in which Warwick took a prominent part. The imbecile Henry, and his brave but unfortunate queen, were unequal to the retention of sovereign power in opposition to the forces arrayed against them, and took refuge in Scotland.

Edward, as king, was not unmindful of Warwick, who had done so much to open the way to his dignity, and to place the crown upon his head. He made him General Warden of the east marches towards Scotland, Lord Great Chamberlain of England for life, Constable of Dover Castle, Lord High Steward of England; en-

trusted him with the most important embassies, and sent him, in 1464, to negotiate a marriage between himself (Edward) and Bona of Savoy, sister of the King of France. This last important and delicate mission, as things turned out, seemed rather like making game of the King-maker. He had nearly brought the negotiations touching the fair Bona's becoming Queen of England to a successful conclusion, when the arrangement was completely spoiled by his hot-blooded principal. The young king had altered his mind, and led to the hymeneal altar the beautiful young widow of Sir John Grey, who was the daughter of Jacquetta, widow of the great Duke of Bedford by her union with Woodville. Warwick was unconcerned about the bride's pedigree, but was angry, not without cause, at having been befooled. Edward was unconcerned by Warwick's anger; rash, haughty, and inconsiderate, he regarded contemptuously the animosity of his most powerful friend. Possibly he designed to check the pride and reduce the power that might one day come in his way to thwart his wishes and designs. From whatever causes, open or covert, avowed enmity broke out between Edward IV. and Warwick.

Warwick endeavoured to form a conspiracy to dethrone the king, who did not, however, cease to use and to associate with him. Warwick was sent, with the Duke of Clarence, the king's brother, who was married



STREET IN CALAIS.  
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to Warwick's eldest daughter, into Lincolnshire to suppress a threatened rebellion. They did not attempt to stifle the rebellion, but endeavoured to turn it against the king; they failed, however, in their treasonable attempt, and, proceeding to Calais, were refused admission. They then proceeded to the French court, and with the King of France entered into a compact for the restoration of Henry to the throne of England. Clarence returned to England and to his allegiance to the king, but Warwick returned about the end of September 1470 as the king's open and avowed enemy. His amazing popularity, and the marvellous personal influence he exercised, speedily placed him at the head of an army of sixty thousand men. Edward had no force adequate for resistance, and had barely time to escape capture. He fled to Holland, and the incapable Henry VI. was restored.

- The reign of Henry and the ascendancy of the Lancastrians seemed established, when Edward suddenly appeared at Ravenspur in Yorkshire.<sup>1</sup> The Duke of Burgundy had supplied him with fourteen ships, two thousand men, and a certain amount of money. It is remarkable that this Yorkist claimant landed at the same place, and made a similar declaration, as the Duke of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV., had done. Edward

<sup>1</sup> This port and town were long since washed away by the sea.



had the address to avoid Warwick, and the good fortune to reach London without meeting with any serious obstacle to his progress. He took possession of the hapless, helpless Henry's person. Edward was soon in command of sufficient support to enable him to meet and oppose Warwick. They and their respective forces met at Barnet near London, on the 14th April 1471, when a decisive battle was fought. Clarence was again on the side of his brother Edward IV. He had a high regard for the Earl of Warwick, his father-in-law, and induced the king to agree to terms of reconciliation. The offered terms were rejected by the earl with haughty disdain. Warwick fought on foot, and on this his last battlefield, fighting fell. His noble and gallant brother, Lord Montague, was also killed in the action. The bodies of the two noble captains—Warwick, the "King Maker," and his brother, Lord Montague—were exposed in St. Paul's, where crowds gathered to take a last look of him who, with all his power to make and unmake kings, had at last succumbed to "the rider on the white horse," and appropriated his share in "the common lot." He was buried in Bisham Priory, Berkshire.

The Lancastrian cause was lost with the Earl of Warwick at the battle of Barnet.

Of this great man Philip de Comines says: "This great earl was the chiefest man in England for support-

ing the house of York, as the Duke of Somerset was for that of Lancaster ; so that he might justly be called King Edward's father, as well for that of training him up, as for the great services he did him."

# SEBASTIAN CABOT.



## CHAPTER XIX.

### DISCOVERER OF AMERICA.

THE heroic achievements of the men of action and enterprise who distinguished themselves as maritime discoverers and explorers hundreds of years ago, are enhanced in grandeur, when the comparative inferiority of their educational and material advantages are taken into consideration. It seems marvellous that in such small clumsy vessels as those they sailed, they should have found their way about the ocean, escaped the perils of the deep, and have returned in safety after lengthened cruises in waters before unknown. These ancient mariners suffer also in general estimation from the meagre and imperfect records that have been made and preserved of their great achievements.

The bold and skilfully executed enterprises of the Cabot family—of Sebastian especially—entitle this dis-

coverer to a higher niche in the Temple of Fame than he occupies.

Giovanni Gabota, a Venetian navigator and merchant, appears to have been a man of culture, spirit, and capacity, that lifted him above "the roll of common men." From Venice he came to Bristol in the latter part of the fifteenth century, and followed in England "the trade of marchandises." He had three sons, of whom Sebastian, the most able and eminent, was born about the year 1477, at Bristol.

Henry VII., the son of Margaret Beaufort and Edward Tudor, Earl of Richmond, ascended the throne in 1485, in succession to Richard III., slain on Bosworth's bloody field. Henry had been an exile, or a prisoner, on the Continent since he was five years old, and had probably had a sufficient degree of intercourse with persons connected with trade and commerce to induce in him something of a speculative and mercantile spirit. In 1492 Columbus had made his first voyage, in search of the new world. In the course of the voyage, his crew, fearing that they were sailing to death, threatened mutiny, and compelled his conditional promise, that if they did not sight land in three days, he would return to Spain. On the third day the Bahamas were sighted, and it and others of the West India islands were explored. After building a fort at Hispaniola, in which he left some of his men, Columbus returned to Spain in

great triumph. He made a second and a third voyage across the Atlantic, and in the last of these, in 1498, first saw the mainland of North America.

The discovery of America is claimed for other explorers. About the year 1170, on the death of Owen Guyneth, Prince of Wales, his three sons disputed the right of succession, and prepared to resort to arms. Madoc, one of the three, weary of the contention, and unwilling to be a contributor to the devastation that would be caused by a civil war, fitted out a ship, and with a number of his adherents, set sail in search of a more tranquil settlement. He steered due west, after rounding the south of Ireland, and arrived at length in an unknown country. He was charmed with the new region. He returned to Wales and gave his countrymen a glowing account of the richness, beauty, and fertility of the lands he had seen, and reproached them with the folly of sacrificing their lives for the possession of the barren mountains of Wales, while such a delightful abode was open to them in another part of the world. His representation induced many to join him in an expedition, and he went with ten ships to take possession of the new land. These adventurers were never more heard of; but when America was discovered by Columbus, and other nations contended to deprive him of his acquired honour, Welsh writers revived the history of the earlier alleged expedition, and claimed that Prince Madoc was



JOANNE  
M. FILIUM  
CAETERI  
CUM NAVA  
PERISQUE  
ANIMO  
ORIENTA  
FORUM

THE CABOT FAMILY.



the first European who had set foot in America. In support of this claim, the Welsh have, with considerable confidence, advanced the statement that many words used in America appear of Welsh derivation, and bear analogous meanings in both languages.<sup>1</sup>

Yet again, it has been held by learned writers that America was known to the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Carthaginians. Also, that before the time of Columbus, Martin Behem, "in a voyage of discovery in 1460, found an island covered with beech trees, that he called Fayal; and others abounding with hawks, which he therefore called Azores. He afterwards visited Brazil, and sailed as far south as the Straits of Magellan in 1484." John Cabot, merchant and master pilot, it may be supposed was a man of substance and of good education, capable of giving his sons practical and theoretical instruction and training in the art of navigation, and it is believed that he did give his sons as thorough instruction in arithmetic, geography, cosmography, and kindred subjects, as the means and appliances of the time made possible. Father and sons entered with ardour into the speculations that the discoveries of Columbus had excited throughout Europe. Sebastian, who had almost reached manhood, was especially fired with enthusiasm. The family were among the most eager in their desire

<sup>1</sup> This subject is dealt with in Robertson's *History of America*, vol. i. p. 332.



to prosecute further marine adventure, and to share in the romance of discovering unknown realms. Sebastian declares, concerning his own feeling, that, "by this fame and report" (the discoveries of Columbus), "there increased in my heart a great flame of desire to do some notable thing." The feeling was natural in an ambitious, intelligent, high-spirited youth, who had been well trained by a practical navigator. The young aspirant for deserved fame had his wishes gratified.

John Cabot presented a petition to the king, in answer to which, under date March 5th, 1496, letters patent were granted to him and to his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian, and Santius, authorising them, their heirs or deputies, "to sail to all parts, countries, and seas of the east, of the west, and of the north, under our banners and ensigns, with five ships, of what burden or quantity soever they be, and as many mariners and men as they will take with them in the said ships, upon their own proper costs and charges, to seek out, discover, and find whatsoever isles, countries, regions, or provinces, of the heathen and infidels, whatsoever they be, and in what part of the world soever they be, which before this time have been unknown to all Christians." In accordance with this patent, immediate preparations were made for an expedition that included as most important among its objects, the realisation of a long cherished dream of

navigators and statesmen—the discovery of a North-West passage to India.

In the spring of 1497 the expedition sailed from Bristol. Even at that early date there were trading relations between Bristol and the remote island of Iceland, whither the little fleet of five small vessels first sailed. After transacting business there, the fleet sailed westwards across the North Atlantic. According to Hakluyt, “they sailed happily confident of finding the long desired North-West passage to India, till the 24th June 1497,” when about five o’clock in the morning an unexpected wonder was revealed to the lookout in the discovery of land. From the number of fish seen on the coast, Sebastian called it *Baccalaos*; it was afterwards known as Newfoundland. He had hoped to make his way unimpeded to India, and quaintly expresses his disappointment: “After certayne days I found that the land” (Labrador) “ranne towards the north, which was to mee a great displeasure”—displeasure caused by the really stupendous discovery of the North American continent. The island he described as being “full of white bears, and stagges far greater than the English.”

Intent in his quest after the North-West passage, the adventurers held on their course northwards. Hudson’s Bay seemed the open channel of which they were in search, but their hopes were disappointed. Meantime provisions were running low; the dangers and hardships

of the expedition were discouraging ; the crews, who had no share in the ambition and enthusiasm that sustained their leaders, clamoured for return to England, and to this demand the Cabots felt themselves obliged to yield, and the expedition returned accordingly, its leaders still hopeful and undaunted.

The following formal report, found on a map drawn by Sebastian Cabot, is worth preserving for two reasons—because it is the production of that distinguished navigator, and also as being the first account of discoveries made by adventurers under sanction of the English Government :—

“In the year of our Lord 1497, John Cabot, a Venetian, and his son Sebastian, with an English fleet set out from Bristol, and discovered that island which no man had before attempted. This discovery was made on the four-and-twentieth of June, about five o'clock in the morning. This land we call *Prima vista*, or first seen, because it was that part of which they had the first sight from the sea. The island which lies out before the land he called the island of St. John, because it was discovered on the festival of St. John the Baptist. The inhabitants of this island wore beasts' skins, and esteemed them as the finest garments.”

Fabian, in his *Chronicle*, states that there were brought unto Henry VII., by John Cabot, “three men taken in the new-found island;” these, he continues, “were





clothed in beasts' skins, and did eat raw flesh, and spake such speech that no man could understand them, and in their demeanour were like brute beasts." Purchas also gives some account of the customs of the natives, and of the produce of the newly-discovered regions. John Cabot received in acknowledgment of the importance of his services, the honour of knighthood at the hands of the king. A second patent was granted by King Henry to John Cabot and his deputies. It allowed them "six English shippes, so that and if the said shippes be of the bourdeyn of two hundred tonnes, or under, with their apparail requisite and necessarie for the safe conduct of the said shippes." They were further instructed to follow up the discoveries made in the voyage of 1497.

John Cabot died soon after the grant of the second patent. Sebastian, however, determined to prosecute the voyage. What the royal interest was in the second expedition cannot be stated. It extended to one or two ships, and a considerable amount in money. "Divers merchants of London also adventured small stocks," and several mercantile adventurers freighted small vessels with goods, which Sebastian took with him in the second expedition, which also sailed from Bristol in 1498. With the intention of establishing a colony, he took three hundred men, a portion of whom he landed on the coast of Labrador. He left them there to settle, and

set off on his quest for "the passage," which he did not find. When he returned, the colonists, as might have been expected, were nearly dead with cold and hunger.

He took them off, and, leaving for a time further search for a passage through the ice to the north, shaped his course for a warmer latitude. He touched at Cape Florida, and coasted along a part of the Isthmus of Darien. He returned to England with a valuable cargo. There are conflicting accounts as to the manner in which he was received, but it may be concluded that it was not with greater honour and distinction than was his due, as really the first visitor from Europe to the continent of North America, Columbus not having sighted or landed upon it until the year following. Purchas boldly asserts that "America ought rather to be called Cabotiana, or Sebastiana, because Sebastian Cabot discovered more of it than Amerigo Vespucci, the Florentine, or Columbus himself." We venture to think that "the learned Purchas" claims too much for Cabot, and does injustice to Columbus, in assigning the honour of discovering America to the one and denying it to the other. The voyage of Columbus in 1492, and the discoveries he then made, were confessedly the source of inspiration of the Cabots. Columbus followed up these discoveries in following years, and his full discovery of the North American continent may be said to have been in progress when Sebastian Cabot was instigated by

what Columbus, the pioneer discoverer, had already accomplished. Authentic accounts of the earliest visits to the continent of America by Europeans, mention the dates, which may be stated. Cabot landed at Newfoundland and Labrador in June 1497; Columbus discovered the continent on his third voyage, which commenced May 30th, 1498; Amerigo Vespucci did not leave Spain until May 20th, 1499.

In the year 1499, Sebastian asked for the king's assistance to prosecute his explorations, but he met with "noe great or favourable entertainment." Out of his own means he provided ships for a fresh expedition, and, again setting out from Bristol, is credited by the old chroniclers with having "made great discoveries."

For a space of nearly twenty years in Sebastian Cabot's life, when he was in the zenith of his powers, his activities in full exercise, and his most important adventures and enterprises entered upon and prosecuted, there is, unfortunately, a blank record, from the inexplicable loss of a series of papers, including maps and charts, that Sebastian had prepared for publication.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Hakluyt makes repeated reference to these documents, as, for instance, to Cabot's description of St. John's Island: "An extract taken out of the map of Sebastian Cabot, cut by Clement Adams, concerning his discovery of the West Indies, is to be seene in Her Majestie's privie gallerie at Westminster and in many ancient merchants' houses."



During this period he was actively engaged as an explorer, but independently and unconnected with any national naval project or expedition. His parsimonious patron, Henry VII., died in 1509, and Henry VIII., then eighteen years of age, ascended the throne. Bluff King Hal, of an "active and fiery spirit," would probably have availed himself of Cabot's experience and proved capacity for the national service; he was anticipated, however, by Ferdinand of Spain, who, through Lord Willoughby, Captain-General of England, invited Cabot to Spain, whither he went, and was received and treated with the respect due to his merits. Amerigo Vespucci, Ferdinand's maritime chief, having lately died, made an opening for a successor. Cabot arrived at the Spanish court, September 13th, 1512. He had the title of Captain conferred upon him, was endowed with liberal emoluments, and stationed at Seville, for a time without definite duties.

In 1515, Cabot, in concert with some of the most expert cosmographers of the age, made a thorough revision and correction of the maps and charts of the period, introducing the latest geographical discoveries, not a few of which had been made by Cabot himself. In evidence of the estimation in which he was held, he was appointed a member of the Council of the Indies. He was also appointed to the command of an expedition in search of the India passage, up Labrador way, where,

as was well known, Cabot had been before. Here a sad check occurred in his career.

The new expedition was in a forward state when Ferdinand died, 22nd January 1516. Cabot had more cause than almost any other to regret the death of his patron. Charles V., his successor, Emperor in the Netherlands, remained for some time at Brussels before taking the Spanish crown.

Ferdinand's kindness to Cabot had incensed envious detractors among his subjects, who were indignant at his having raised a foreigner to his confidence. They insinuated that Cabot had accomplished nothing by his voyage of 1496, and that he was a pretentious impostor. Charles, who was only sixteen years of age when he arrived in Spain to assume the crown, had already been unfavourably biased by intriguers against Cabot, who, to escape undeserved obloquy, returned to England. His independent spirit led him to surrender office if he found he was not needed; he considered his services a full equivalent for the remuneration he received for them.

After a short residence in England, Sebastian succeeded in fitting out an expedition such as he had undertaken for Ferdinand, and which had been interrupted by the death of that sovereign. Henry VIII., pleased at the return of Cabot, "furnished certen shippes," and allowed certain funds for the adventure. He also appointed Sir Thomas Pert, who proved an incapable,

to be first in command under Cabot. The expedition sailed, in 1517, but, as to whither, there is no clear record. "Several historians say that they went on a trading voyage to the West Indies; but these accounts are so confused that we find them at one time off the coast of Labrador, and shortly after as far south as Cape Florida."

Contemporary and subsequent accounts represent Sir Thomas Pert as totally unfit to be second in command in such an expedition. His cowardice rendered his commander's energy ineffectual. "They penetrated to 67° north latitude, and, entering Hudson's Bay, gave English names to various places, when, as before, doubts of success arose among the crew." (Doubts, as it has turned out, that have been fully justified by all that has been done or known concerning these regions, and the possible "passage," before and since.) "The severity of the climate and many privations increased their eagerness to return; while Pert, a man of high command and influence" (he was the king's vice-admiral), "favoured their remonstrances. Under such circumstances it was impossible to quell the mutiny by force; and the pilots being unable to convince the understandings of the crew, Cabot turned homeward. Although he had confessedly failed, he must have gained credit in England by his resolution, while Pert seems to have been regarded as the cause of failure. 'His faint heart,' says Eden, 'was



REVISING THE CHARTS.



the cause that the voyage took none effect.'” There was no disposition to renew the attempt. Another turn comes in Cabot's service and fortunes.

Soon after his accession, Charles V. and his advisers, examining into the accounts of the interrupted expedition of 1516, recall with surprise the sudden disappearance of Cabot. His high character was well known, and the State records bore ample testimony to the estimation in which he was held by Ferdinand. It was seen that Cabot had been the victim of jealousy and intrigue. To atone for injustice, Charles appointed Cabot in 1518 to the honourable office of Pilot-Major of Spain—an honour that was confirmed when the emperor visited England in 1520.

Cabot's duties were now numerous and highly responsible. Public opinion inclined not towards Labrador and the North-West passage, but to a southern expedition. “What need have we,” said Peter Martyr, the historian, “of these things which are common with all the people of Europe? To the South! To the South! They that seek for riches must not go to the cold and frozen North.”

Cabot advised a voyage to the Moluccas and other islands in about the same latitude. Portugal claimed the Moluccas as within her territory. The Emperor Charles summoned a council at Badajos in 1524 for consultation on the subject—Cabot, as of the highest

standing in the nautical profession, at the head of the list. After a session that lasted for a month, the Council declared that the islands were by at least twenty degrees within Spanish limits. The Portuguese representatives retired from the Council in great displeasure, expressing determination to vindicate their rights.

A company was formed for prosecution of trade with the Moluccas, and Cabot, with permission of the Council for the Indies, accepted the command, giving bonds for the faithful discharge of his duty. By the articles of agreement, executed at Madrid in 1525, three ships and one hundred and fifty men were to be provided by the emperor,—the necessary funds for commercial purposes to be provided by the company.

The Portuguese made earnest and persistent efforts, by veiled threats, by entreaties, by plea of the relationship between the sovereigns (the King of Portugal having obtained the hand of the emperor's sister), to desist from the projected invasion of what had been their commercial monopoly hitherto. The emperor was firm in his purpose not to relinquish the enterprise. The Portuguese employed Diego Garcia to do his best, or worst, as a marplot. With great secrecy a squadron of three ships was fitted up and placed under his command, with instructions to follow, watch, circumvent, and embarrass Cabot to the utmost extent in his power.

Many delays hindered the start of the expedition.

Cabot had the hearty goodwill of the emperor, but not of all in authority under him, and he was harassed and thwarted in various ways. He desired for his lieutenant General de Rufis, a trustworthy friend, but had one Martin Mendez forced upon him. Two brothers, Miguel and Francisco de Rojas, zealous adherents of Mendez, also contrived to get themselves appointed to the expedition. A crowning cause of dissatisfaction and disquietude to Cabot was the expedition sailing with sealed orders to the captain of each ship. These were probably given without Cabot's knowledge. It is most unlikely, indeed, that he would have sailed under such conditions. The orders provided that in case of Cabot's death the chief command should devolve upon one of eleven persons named, and in case of the death of such a one, the commander to be chosen by a general vote, and in case of equality of votes between persons voted for, the decision to be by casting lots. Under such unsatisfactory conditions and circumstances, carrying with it elements of disaffection and treachery, the expedition sailed in the beginning of April 1526.

Cabot sailed first to the Canaries, and from thence to the Cape de Verd Islands, touching at both to replenish his stock of provisions. His intercourse with the islanders was uniformly of the most amiable and satisfactory character, but it was not so with they of his own company—he had traitors on board desirous to compass



his ruin. Martin Mendez and the brothers Rojas had no difficulty in finding causes for complaint and quarrel. He would have had no difficulty in dealing with these antagonists if their malicious influence had been confined to themselves, but it was not so ; they sought to destroy him by bringing upon him the hatred of the whole of the ships' crews. They urged the sailors to believe that Cabot had not laid in an adequate store of provisions, and that such store as they had was secretly stowed away in his own ship. Mendez called upon the sailors to resist oppression, depose Cabot the tyrant in favour of honest officers—himself and the two Rojas. The plans for revolt had been thoroughly matured. The commander had need of self-possession, a cool head, and a stout heart who had to deal with such villains. Running along the coast of Brazil, the trio of traitors became openly insolent to their commander, and instigated the men to throw off his authority, denouncing him as a foreign usurper, who had been raised by favour to govern a people, to whom he had never rendered any service. Cabot had two countrymen in the expedition, but did not know what support he might have. Courage, promptitude, decision, and self-reliance were qualities indispensable to an effective performance of his part in the stirring drama, and he manifested his possession of them. He ordered the seizure of Mendez and the two Rojas, one of whom he caused to be taken out of his ship without ceremony.

It was no time for palaver ; the three traitors were handed into a boat, rowed by two loyal sailors to the nearest island, and there landed, to find out the resources of the island, and with leisure to contrive and mature some other plot more likely to be successfully executed than their attempt against Sebastian Cabot.

Having felt bound to thus summarily separate from the expedition three of its chief officers, Cabot did not feel justified in carrying out its original design without further special authority. One of the vessels in the little squadron had been wrecked, and for several sufficient reasons he considered it inexpedient to attempt to carry out his first intentions. Unwilling to return without having done some useful work, he determined on an attempt to explore the river La Plata. His predecessor in the office of pilot-major, Diego de Solis, had, he knew, perished in making such an attempt. He and a body of fifty men had been murdered and actually devoured by the savages among whom they had been thrown.

Cabot sailed boldly up the river as far as the island of St. Gabriel, opposite Buenos Ayres, where his landing was stoutly but unsuccessfully resisted by the natives. Finding suitable anchorage for his ships, Cabot, with a strong party from his crews, proceeded to the further exploration of the river, which they ascended in boats. Seven leagues above St. Gabriel he reached a locality suitable for a port, which he named St. Salvador, an island nearly

opposite the mouth of the river Uruguay, and where the La Plata changes into the Parana. Here two of the exploring party were killed by the natives. St. Salvador was found to be an excellent harbour, and the ships were brought' up to lie there until the time arrived for the homeward voyage.



SHIP OF CABOT.

With small boats Cabot proceeded up the Parana, on the bank of which he erected the Fort Sanctus Spiritus. His exploring party, not numerous at starting, was reduced by death and defections, and the commander's courage and governing powers were sorely tried in getting the remainder to forge ahead. After sailing through a

land "very fayre and inhabited with infinite people," they reached the junction of the Paraguay. Leaving the Parana on the right, they rowed up the Paraguay for about thirty-four leagues. The inhabitants of the district practised cultivation, and in many respects seemed more civilised than those that had been met with on the lower reaches of the great rivers, but their hatred of Spaniards and Portuguese was most pronounced, and friendly intercourse was found impossible. An accident precipitated a terrible conflict between Cabot and his followers with the natives. Three Spaniards who had got detached from the main body were surrounded by the natives and killed. Their comrades determined to avenge their death, and Cabot found himself compelled to accept the duties and responsibilities of a military commander. Under his command, his men, although ignorant of the country and of the mode of warfare of the natives, sustained with unflinching courage their part in an obstinate and sanguinary contest that lasted for nearly a whole day. Three hundred natives and twenty-five of the adventurers fell in the bloody battle. This incident was a heavy blow and sore disappointment to the courageous leader, who was about to be tried by another adverse influence. Diego Garcia, the emissary of Portugal, and his enemy, who had followed in his wake since he left the coast of Spain, had now come up with him. Garcia's course had been the same as that of Cabot; whether information

or instinct led Garcia into the La Plata cannot be told, but so it was. When he was seen ascending the river, Antonia de Grajeda, who had been left by Cabot at St. Salvador in command of the ships, took Garcia's party for Mendez and the mutineers who had been left behind. He met Garcia with several armed boats, but a conflict was avoided. Garcia ascended with a powerful party to the Fort Sanctus Spiritus, where Cabot had left a small party under the command of Gregorio Caro. Garcia insolently demanded surrender of the fort, to which demand Caro made the courteous reply that he would hold the fort in the names of Sebastian Cabot and the emperor. Caro did not know either the man or his intentions, or he would have met him probably in a different spirit.

Garcia continued his ascent of the river to Santa Aña, near which the battle with the natives was fought, and where Cabot was stationed. He was doubtless greatly pleased to notice how much Cabot had been reduced and crippled in his forces. He repeated his demands for a surrender, and Cabot's strength did not justify his answering by an attack. In his difficult and embarrassing circumstances he felt that the only course open to him was to despatch a message to the emperor, giving a straightforward account of his voyage, of the conduct of the mutineers and his dealing with them, and consequent change of destination. His special messengers were

Francis Calderon and George Barlow. From their report, it would appear that in prosecuting these inland explorations, Cabot had vastly important and ambitious objects in view ; to learn the "secrets of the country," get at its mineral wealth, and from the head of the inland navigations find a new and better route than the Straits of Magellan to the western seaboard.

The emperor's confidence in Cabot continued undiminished, but he was unable to send him the reinforcements and supplies of which he stood so greatly in need. The Cortes refused him the pecuniary assistance solicited. Meantime, Cabot and his bold followers continued their explorations. His belief was settled that the Parana would lead to the mines of Potosi.

Reinforcements and supplies failing to reach them, surrounded by a hostile population, Cabot was at length compelled to collect the remains of his little band and return with them to Spain, where they landed in 1531, after an absence of five years.

On his return to Spain with an untarnished name, the most famous navigator of his time, enjoying the full confidence of the emperor, he was asked to resume the office of pilot-major, in which for many years he rendered valuable and important public service. He was at the time of his return from the La Plata about fifty years of age. We are assisted to a conception of the disposition and character of the man by what his contemporaries say

of him. The men of his crews bore high testimony to his courage, coolness, and intrepidity in the most trying dangers. Charles V. esteemed him a strictly honourable man, and relied implicitly upon his judgment. A contemporary writer says of him : "He is so valiant a man, and so well practised in all things pertaining to navigations and the science of cosmographie, that at this present he hath not his like in all Spaine." Another describes him as "a very gentle and courteous person," "an expert man in science," who can "make cardes for the sea with his owne hand," with "a large mappe of the world, with certaine particular navigations as well of the Portuguese as of the Spaniards."

For nearly seventeen years he held, with much credit to himself and usefulness to the State, the office of pilot-major, or chief nautical officer. He frequently led naval expeditions during this time, but these were rather intended to keep alive the Navy and public interest in marine affairs than as voyages of discovery. Some years after the La Plata expedition he writes : "After this I made many voyages, which I now pretermit, and, waxing olde, I give myself to rest from such travels, because there are nowe many young and lustie pilots and mariners of good experience, by whose forwardness I do rejoyce in the fruit of my labours, and rest with the charge of this office."

In 1548, when he had passed the allotted three score

and ten years, while still enjoying the full favour of the emperor, Cabot returned to England, after a long absence, to spend in his native land the remainder of his days. Edward VI. had recently ascended the throne. He had been well educated, and took special interest in naval affairs. The young king and the famous navigator were brought together by the Duke of Somerset. Edward became sincerely attached to the famous seaman, whom he appointed to a similar office to that he had held in Spain as Pilot-Major, Grand Pilot, Director of Maritime Enterprises. Edward's respect for Cabot's character, and marks of appreciation for his services, were shown by many marks of favour, among others by a pension of £166, 13s. 4d. per annum, assured by letters patent under the royal sign manual.

Charles V. regretted the loss of Cabot and his services, and sent to Edward a formal demand that "Sebastian Cabot, Grand Pilot of the Emperor's Indies, then in England, might be sent over to Spain, as a very necessary man for the Emperor, whose servant he was, and had a pension of him." It is testimony to Cabot's worth that he won golden opinions from both sovereigns. Cabot courteously entreated the emperor to excuse his preference for the land of his birth, as the resting-place of his old age.

Cabot's mind retained its vigour to the last, and in the latter years of his long life he devoted himself to the



discovery and elucidation of new scientific phenomena and the origination of great national enterprises.

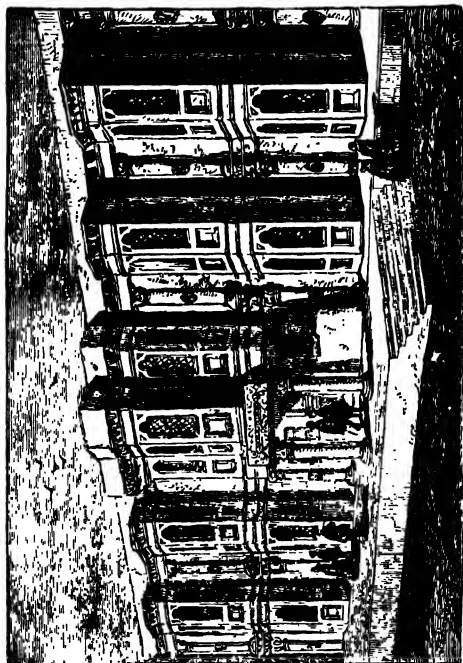
In one of his earliest voyages Cabot observed a variation in the movements of the magnetic needle. He noted the circumstances at the time, and afterwards added from time to time to his notes of observations on the same subject. The active, adventurous life he led was unfavourable to concentration of his powers in pursuit of this scientific eccentricity, and it was not until his return from the La Plata, where also he had observed the variations of the needle, that he attempted to elucidate or propound a theory on the subject. When King Edward heard of Cabot's observations and opinions on the needle phenomena, he called a council of the most eminent scientific men of the kingdom, before whom and his sovereign the distinguished navigator gave an exposition of his views, illustrated by charts he had prepared showing the variations and their extent in different latitudes, and a full account of his observations. His exposition, which may not have been a perfect solution of the problem involved, was an important contribution towards it, attracted the attention of the scientific world, and added lustre to the name of the renowned seaman.

About this time, the middle of the sixteenth century, the foreign trade of England had fallen very low, and public-spirited men were much exercised as to the best means of reviving and increasing national commerce. "Certaine

grave citizens of London, and men of great wisdom and carefull for the good of their countrey, began to thinke with themselves how this mischief might be remedied. And whereas at the same time one Sebastian Cabot, a man in those days very renowned, happened to be in London, they began first of all to deale and consult diligently with him." As it turned out, they could not have done better.

Sebastian advised the merchants to seek a new northern market, and his project finding favour with the king and the merchants, it was determined to fit up an expedition of three ships "for the search and discovery of the northern part of the world." An adverse element in originating the enterprise was the powerful foreign corporation established in London, known as the merchants of the Stilyard or Steelyard, who claimed a right to what they had in fact long actually possessed, a monopoly of the trade with northern European ports. The Steelyard Company consisted chiefly of agents of mercantile houses in Antwerp and Hamburg, who had obtained command of most of the English markets. Cabot instituted rigid inquiries into the history and transactions of the Steelyard, and, as a result, laid before Edward and his Privy Council a remonstrance against recognition of the exclusive privileges claimed by the merchants, on the grounds that they had practised impositions, committed fraudulent acts,

fettered lawful enterprise, and, by unfair means, injured native merchants. On the 23rd February 1551, a decree was made that the Steelyard was "no sufficient corpora-



THE OLD PALACE, GREENWICH.

tion," that the members had "forfeited their liberties, and were in like case with other strangers." The parties interested tried hard to obtain the revocation of the decree, but its confirmation was the answer to their

appeal. "To Sebastian Cabot, the great seaman," the king awarded an honorarium of £200 for his services on the occasion.

The new expedition was, after this decree, forwarded with great zeal and activity, Cabot, though now seventy-four years of age, personally superintending the building and outfit of the ships. The squadron consisted of the *Bona Esperanza* of 120 tons, Sir Hugh Willoughby, captain; the *Edward Bonaventure* of 160 tons, Richard Chancellor, master; and the *Bona Confidencia* of 90 tons, Cornelius Durfooth, master. The grand old man, master spirit of the enterprise, with his own hand indited a volume of ordinances and instructions "for the direction of the intended voyage for Cathay, compiled, made, and delivered by the right worshipful M. Sebastian Cabot, Governour of the Mysterie and Companie of the Merchants, Adventurers, etc." The instructions, which it was ordered should be read to the ships' companies every week, have been pronounced "a model of high principle and good sense, as well as a proof of sagacity and extended knowledge of human nature."

On the 20th May 1553, the squadron dropped down the river to Greenwich; "the large ships floating slowly downwards, the sailors dressed all alike in 'watchet or skie-coloured cloth,' and the crowded decks filled with impatient crews,"—an exciting time and scene. The

Court was at Greenwich at the time. "The courtiers came running out, and the common people flockt together, standing very thicke upon the shoare; the Privie Council they lookt out at the windows of the Court, and the rest ranne up to the toppes of the towers; the shippes hereupon discharge their ordnance, and shoot off their pieces after the manner of warre, and of the sea, insomuch that the toppes of the hills sounded therewith, the valleys and the waters gave an echo, and the mariners they shouted in such sort, that the skie rang again with the noise thereof." <sup>1</sup>

The masters appointed, as their rendezvous, in case of separation, the castle of Wardhouse, Norway. Unable to keep together, they were separated by a furious tempest. Sir Hugh Willoughby, finding a passage to the east impracticable, resolved, on the 18th September, to winter with Durfooth in Lapland. The hapless adventurers landed, and perished after horrible privation and suffering. The *Bona Esperanza* and the *Bona Confidencia* were in the after search found in a broken-up, decayed condition, and a manuscript journal, kept by Sir Hugh Willoughby, lying beside the dead body of its author. He is supposed to have lingered till January 1554, about seven months after the joyous departure from the Thames. The journal details the fruitless

<sup>1</sup> Hakluyt, vol. i. p. 245.

attempts made to reach Wardhouse, the resolution to pass the winter on an unknown coast, the extreme destitution of the adventurers on landing, and it gives a description of the wolves that gathered around the first victims. The hopeless misery of the last days of the poor castaways may be partly inferred from the journal:—"September. We sent out three men south south-west, to search if they could find people, who went three dayes journey but could find none; after that we sent other three men westward, who went four dayes journey, which also returned without finding any people. Then sent we three men south-east three dayes journey, who, in like sorte, returned without finding of people or any similitude of habitation."<sup>1</sup>

Chancellor, in the *Edward Bonaventure*, reached Wardhouse, and afterwards courageously prosecuted his voyage through hitherto unexplored waters to Archangel, where he landed. The inhabitants fled affrighted from the strange visitors, but he contrived to allay their apprehensions. The Laplanders were forbidden to trade with foreigners, but Chancellor was able to induce a party to proceed to Moscow, to represent to the emperor the object of the adventurers in visiting his shores. The emperor graciously invited the commander to a personal interview. Chancellor

<sup>1</sup> Hakluyt, vol. i. p. 237

promptly proceeded, travelling by sledge, to Moscow, and fully explained to the emperor the design of his voyage. The interview was quite satisfactory, and thus was laid the foundation of a permanent and extensive trade between England and Russia. A charter was granted in 1555 "to the English merchants," by "John Vasilirch, by the grace of God Emperor of Russia, great Duke of Novgorode, Moscovia, etc." The trade between Russia and England dates from this time. It grew rapidly, and gave a decided impetus to productive industry in England. Cabot, originator of the enterprise, was appointed Governor for life of the English-Russian Merchant Company. Its success must have been peculiarly gratifying to the large-minded, far-seeing patriot. The emperor continued his favours toward the Company, and a branch was established at Moscow. He also sent an ambassador to England to complete and confirm the arrangements. The important trade with Russia was prosecuted with boldness and sound judgment, Cabot directing the different enterprises undertaken, including the Spitzbergen whale fishery, and the fishery on the banks of *Prima Vista* (Newfoundland), that he had visited nearly three score years previously, and called *Baccolaos*, from the fish that were so abundant on the coasts. He was now much beyond the appointed "three score and ten years"—the sum of life, but apparently ambitious to the

last to be useful to his king, country, and countrymen. Campbell observes of Cabot's merits, that "it may be said with strict justice that he was the author of our maritime strength, and opened the way to those improvements which have rendered us so great, so eminent, and so flourishing a people."



SEBASTIAN CABOT.

While Cabot was thus fully and usefully employed in the service of his country, to the advantage of his countrymen and his own honour, his royal friend and patron, the gentle boy-king, Edward VI., died when only sixteen years of age, and "bloody Mary" reigned in his stead. As a favourite of her predecessor, Cabot was little likely to find favour with Mary; nor did he. With ineffable meanness his pension was stopped. His



fortunes did not improve when Mary, about a year after her accession, married Philip of Spain. Maritime enterprise and the extension of commerce were, in their estimation, unworthy of consideration compared with the suppression of the religious liberty for which the people were struggling. The complete restoration of the papal supremacy was the all-absorbing, paramount object of Mary's ambition; the burning of bishops, or others who opposed her will, was more congenial occupation than encouragement of maritime or mercantile adventure. Cabot's pension was partially restored, but for the means wherewith to provide floating ships and floating capital to carry out their great enterprise, Cabot and the members of the Anglo-Russo Merchant Company had to depend upon their own resources. Mary and her husband, with the legate Cardinal Pole, had no attention to spare for such projects, for the candle had been lighted in England that was never to be put out.<sup>1</sup>

In April 1556—the year of Cranmer's martyrdom—Cabot, to the last active in the affairs of the Company

<sup>1</sup> Latimer and Ridley were burnt at the stake at Oxford in 1555. It is narrated that "kind hands hung bags of gun-powder round the necks of both. Then was heard the snapping of the kindling boughs, from amid which these noble prophetic words of Latimer sounded forth: 'Be of good comfort, Master Ridley. Play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as shall never be put out.'"

of which he was the head, proceeded to Gravesend to attend and superintend the despatch of one of the Company's ships. He gave a grand entertainment on the occasion, and, in evidence of his genial temperament and well-preserved physical energy, it is stated that he danced with the guests; although almost, if not four score his years, "he featly led the ball, and while he feasted all the great did not forget the small." It is stated that he distributed alms amongst the poor with profuse liberality, and besought an interest in the prayers of all classes for the safety and prosperity of the expedition.

It is supposed that his death, at a truly ripe old age, occurred not long after the Gravesend festival, but when, where, and under what circumstances he died, and where he was buried, are not recorded. His friend, Richard Eden, states that he died calmly and peacefully, but that "the good old man, even in the article of death, had not shaken off all worldlie vanitie," and that he "spoke flightilie of a divine revelation of an infallible method of ascertaining the longitude, which he might not disclose to any mortal."

Although an Italian by descent, Sebastian Cabot was an Englishman by birth, and ardent in his attachment to his adopted country. He was a good, a just, and an able man; composed in trial, courageous in danger, hopeful in gloom, tranquil in affliction, ever solicitous

for, and ready to promote, the happiness and welfare of others. He is entitled to a distinguished place among the men of mark of his time. He was the most courageous and skilful navigator and seaman of the age in which he lived. The discoveries he made, and the projects he devised, are undeniable testimonials of his courage, fortitude, and wisdom. The lustre of his achievements was enhanced withal by the rectitude and excellence of his moral character.

SIR EDWARD HOWARD,  
LORD HIGH ADMIRAL.

SIR THOMAS HOWARD,  
EARL OF SURREY AND DUKE OF NORFOLK.



CHAPTER XX.

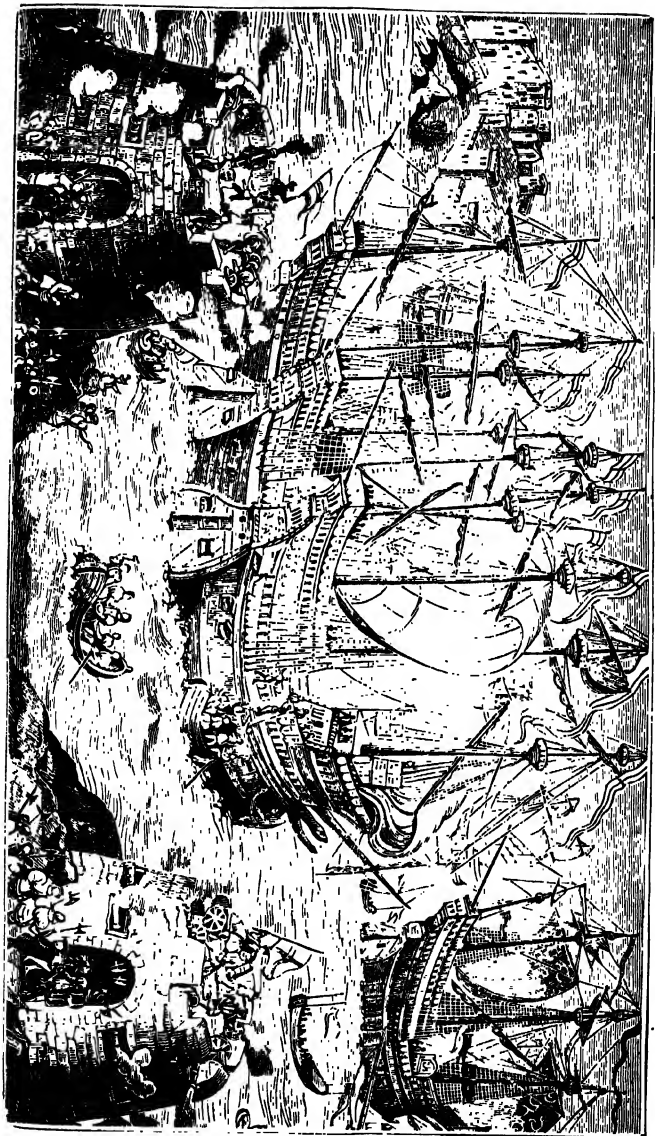
THE BATTLES WITH SCOTLAND.

THE first recorded ancestor of the illustrious Howard family is Edward Howard, judge of the Court of Common Pleas in the times of Edward I. and his successor Edward II. He is represented as having been a man of refined manners, great learning, becoming seriousness, indefatigable industry, and unimpeachable integrity. John, a descendant of the judge, was by Edward IV. made Lord Howard; afterwards, by Richard III., he was created Duke of Norfolk—the premier dukedom of the United Kingdom. He fell in the battle of Bosworth Field, and the dukedom was attainted, but it was restored, after the battle of Flodden Field, to his

son Thomas, who has been considered the true founder of the family, and the basis upon which the distinction of the Howards has been reared. He had eight sons and three daughters, among whom were the two Admirals, Sir Edward and Sir Thomas Howard.

Sir Edward Howard gave early evidence of his interest in the naval affairs of the country, and his fitness to take an important part in their direction. The judgment, activity, and courage he displayed even in that early stage of his career procured the approval and admiration of his superior officers, and inspired the belief that if spared he was certain to achieve fame. His knight-hood, indeed, was conferred upon him by Henry VII. in consideration of the eminently satisfactory manner and spirit in which he had conducted himself at this period.

Henry VIII. appointed Sir Edward his standard-bearer, a post of great honour, conferred only upon persons of rare worth and bravery. The king further honoured him by constituting him Lord High Admiral of England, granting to him by indenture, dated April 8th, 1513, the following allowance to support the dignity of his new rank:—"For his own maintenance, diet, wages, and rewards, ten shillings a day. For each of the captains, on the like accounts, one shilling and sixpence a day. For every soldier, mariner, and gunner, five shillings a month for his wages, and five shillings for his victuals, reckoning eight-and-twenty days in the month."



EMBARKATION OF HENRY VII. FOR FRANCE.



The action between Andrew Barton, the famous Scot, and the Howards, Sir Edward and Sir Thomas, is referred to in the notice of Barton. The action, which took place off the Goodwin sands, is thus described by a naval historian :—They (the Howards) fell in with Barton, who had two stout ships, on his return from Flanders to Scotland. “The force was equal, and the contest was exceedingly hot. Barton fought desperately, and when reduced to extremity by the wounds he had received, encouraged his men by sounding his boatswain’s whistle up to his latest breath. The ‘pirates’ were conducted to London, but dismissed, by Henry’s clemency, to their native land. Scotland complained of this act as an infraction of existing treaties, but Henry replied ‘that to punish pirates was no infraction of treaties between princes.’”

Naval transactions in the spring of 1513 were numerous and important. Henry had long purposed an invasion of France, and determined to pass over to Calais that summer. He gave the lord admiral orders to equip a competent fleet and clear the seas. The armament prepared consisted of forty-two ships, which left England in April. Howard found the French in Brest, waiting for a reinforcement of six galleys which were daily expected from the Mediterranean. To have attacked the French, so strongly posted as they were, would have been to invite almost certain defeat. Howard made a



feint of landing at a little distance, by which he drew the enemy from the harbour, and then audaciously entered with his own fleet, spread devastation all around in sight of the castle of Brest. The French commander arrived, and took a station where he thought he would be perfectly secure against attack. He anchored in the Bay of Conquet between two rocks, on each of which there was a strong fort. He lay so far up the bay that it was with great difficulty Howard could bring any of his ships to the attack. Of two galleys he had in his fleet, Howard chose one and committed the other to Lord Ferrers. With these and two barges and two boats he entered the bay. Howard made direct for the admiral's ship, and leaped on board, attended by Carroz, a Spaniard, and seventeen seamen. The cable was cut, and Howard was left struggling with a crowd of Frenchmen, who overpowered him and flung him overboard. He was drowned, and thus, sad to relate, ended his short but brilliant career. Ferrers, seeing the state of affairs in the admiral's galley, and having expended his shot, thought it prudent to retire, he and the English crew being greatly dejected from the loss of their gallant commander.

The only account afterwards collected from Howard's own men amounted merely to this, that they saw him take his whistle and the chain of gold nobles from his neck, and throw them into the sea, that

they might not fall into the possession of the enemy.

Sir Edward Howard was a man of high character, a brave and intelligent seaman, a bold soldier, an able and upright statesman, and most amiable in his private relations. He fell in the flower of his age, April 25th, 1513. His early death was a great loss to his king and country, although happily the valour and merit of the Howard family did not die with him.

The Duke of Norfolk, father of Sir Edward and Sir Thomas, had a good title to credit for patriotism; it is imputed to him that, in relation to piracy, he declared that while he had an estate to furnish a ship, and a son to command it, no pirate would be tolerated upon our surrounding seas; and it is believed that the two ships commanded by his two sons, with which they fought Andrew Barton, were fitted up entirely at the duke's expense.

Sir Thomas Howard, on his return from accompanying the Duke of Dorset against Guienne, was made aware of the sad disaster that had befallen his brother Edward. Neither the reputation he had achieved by his own services, nor the gratifying intelligence that he had been appointed Lord High Admiral in succession to his brother, reconciled him to the loss of a brother so near and dear, so admired and honoured. It is stated that the chief pleasure he received from his appointment as

High Admiral arose from the hope it inspired that it might afford him facilities for revenging his brother's death. The French admiral gave him a better reason for seeking revenge upon him. Flushed and exultant at the failure of the English attack upon him at Conquet, the French commander landed a crew in Sussex, who pillaged a district near the coast. Sir Thomas, on receiving intelligence of these doings, promptly put to sea. He scoured the Channel, so that not a French sail would venture to appear; he landed on the coast, and pillaged the places adjacent, including a considerable town which he burnt. Such are the amenities of war! After clearing the seas, Sir Thomas conveyed King Henry with his expedition to Calais, for his long-intended visit to France.

While Henry was amusing himself in France with the flatteries of the Emperor Maximilian, James IV. of Scotland made a serious incursion into the north of England, which was promptly and effectively blocked by the Howards. Sir Thomas landed five thousand men at Alnwick to the assistance of his noble father, who was proceeding against James. They sent their herald to the Scottish king, to inform him, "that whereas he (Sir Thomas Howard) could not meet with any of the Scottish ships at sea, he thought fit to land, to the end that he might justify Sir Andrew Barton's death." He added that, "as he looked for no mercy from his

enemies, so he would spare none but the king only, if he came into his hands, and to make all this good that he would be in the vanguard of the battle." The bloody battle of Flodden field followed from the meeting of the Scottish attacking and the English defending armies. It was fought on the 8th September 1513, and was the most sad and disastrous reverse Scotland had ever met with. Among the slain were the king, twelve earls, fifteen lords and clan chieftains, and about nine thousand fighting men; the slain consisted of the very flower of the male population of Scotland, especially of Tweeddale and the Lothians, and gave occasion to the matrons and maids of Scotland to raise their piteous, melancholy moan, that "the flowers o' the forest are a' wede away." For their patriotism and service in connection with this great border battle, the king restored to the father the title of Duke of Norfolk, and made Sir Thomas Howard, the son, Earl of Surrey.

Ireland about this time,—1515-20,—as it has often been before and since, was troublesome to the Government, and a man of wisdom and discretion, with a firm hand, was needed to take the reins; Sir Thomas Howard, or, as we may now designate him, the Earl of Surrey, was considered a fit and proper person for the post of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, to which he was accordingly appointed. He devoted himself with zeal and assiduity to the arduous task imposed upon him,

and was eminently successful in restoring the lapsed authority of Government, and was successful at the same time in conciliating the Irish people. He suppressed Desmond's rebellion, and broke the power of the O'Neals and O'Carrols, adding greatly, by the success with which he fulfilled his mission, to his already high reputation as a commander, the distinction of being an able administrator in State affairs. The ambitious Cardinal Wolsey was at this time rising into power. Jealous of rivalry, he was instrumental in checking Surrey's useful work in Ireland, by having him recalled. Wolsey and the Howards had never been cordial in their relations.

After his recall from Ireland, Surrey, in his capacity of admiral, rendered important service in chastising the French, and putting a stop to their attacks at various points on the English coast. On the 4th December 1522, Surrey's line of State service is again changed, by his entering upon the office of Lord Treasurer.

A new war ensued in consequence of a treaty that had been made between Henry and the Emperor Charles V. Henry had been lured into this alliance by Wolsey, whom the emperor had enlisted in his cause, under a promise of raising him to the papacy. The project was to join the forces. Surrey was appointed by Charles Great Admiral of the combined fleets ; his Vice-Admiral Fitzwilliams he appointed to guard the English coasts.

Surrey, under his patent from Charles, proceeded to the coast of Normandy, and, landing a force near Cherbourg, devastated the country, and appeared to return, but there was "more to follow." In a few days he landed



KING HENRY VIII.

on the shores of Brittany with a large body of troops. He took and plundered Morlaix, and, having opened a passage for the English forces into Champagne and

Picardy, scoured and looted the districts, from which they carried off a large quantity of miscellaneous valuable booty. Surrey returned to Southampton with his plunder, leaving a strong squadron under his vice-admiral to protect the merchants and scour the seas. Surrey, after these exploits, took the Emperor Charles on board his ship, and, with a fitting escort, conveyed him to the port of St. Andero, Biscay, where he was landed.

The great and good Duke of Norfolk died in 1525, and the Earl of Surrey, *née* Sir Thomas Howard, became Duke in his stead. Shortly after the death of his father, Norfolk, the new duke, was appointed Commander-in-chief of an army sent against Scotland, which accomplished successfully the object of the expedition. In 1526 Norfolk was appointed a commissioner to arrange a treaty with France.

International politics were a tangled skein in the time of Henry VIII. and the wily and ambitious Wolsey, of Charles V. and Francis I. Wolsey was tottering to his fall; Charles V. was false to him, and, when the time came to redeem his promise to help Wolsey to the triple crown, offered no impediment to Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman who ever occupied it, being elevated to the papal chair instead of Wolsey, who had so long plotted for it, and to whom it had been promised. Wolsey was suspected by his master, envied and hated by his peers, and denounced by the people. Of Wolsey's

enemies none were more powerful and inveterate than the Howards, to whom the Cardinal had always behaved with remarkable asperity, and whom he had thus provoked to retaliation. Norfolk was one of the first to subscribe the articles of impeachment framed against Wolsey.

In 1533 Norfolk took an important part in an interview between Henry and the French king. He was also entrusted with a delicate—or indelicate, as it may be viewed—mission to the pope, the Emperor Charles V., and Francis I., to urge the necessity, propriety, and legality of granting Henry VIII. a divorce from his queen. This mission Norfolk fulfilled to Henry's satisfaction, whether or not to his own credit. Norfolk was among the first to sign a declaration to the pope, "whereby they gave him an intimation that his supremacy here would be endangered in case he did not comply with King Henry's wish."

In May 1534 Norfolk was appointed Earl - Marshal in succession to the Duke of Suffolk, and had the additional honour conferred upon him of being nominated Viceroy of Ireland.

In the years that followed Norfolk took an active part in the proceedings involving the important changes that included the overthrow of the papal power, the suppression of the monasteries, the execution of the most eminent English Catholics, and other incidents that



constituted a great revolution. In the suppression of the tumults so frequent during the period, Norfolk acted as the king's general.

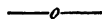
In 1544 Henry, in concert with Charles V., invaded France. Their design was to enter on the campaign with an army of one hundred thousand men, Henry to land at Calais, and Charles to enter France from the Low Countries. Charles V., as Wolsey had found, was not a safe man. This was Henry's experience of him also. He concluded peace with Francis on the 19th September 1544, leaving Henry alone to face France. Norfolk, with his son Henry, Earl of Surrey, of poetic fame, were chiefs in the important naval demonstration which followed. Bent upon reducing the enemy by one tremendous blow, France prepared a great armament for the invasion of England. From the Seine to the Solent, a flotilla of two hundred ships brought a force of sixty thousand men to enforce submission. At first the light French galleys, carrying a long gun at the bow, crippled the English ships that had been got together to repel the enemy. A landing, attempted at the Isle of Wight, was repulsed, and the French fleet dropped away to Selsea Vill. An indecisive conflict took place off Shoreham, and in the darkness that followed the French fleet sheered off. These actions, commenced in July, ended in September 1544.

The Howards rendered many and important services to Henry, but there were influences operating in his mind detrimental to their interests. It was their misfortune, and hers, that Henry had married Catherine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk. Her conduct, in the opinion of that circumspect monarch, reflected discredit upon all her relations. In addition to this, Henry was jealous of Norfolk's power and popularity. Rumours were circulated of his attachment to the Romish Church. His being allied to the throne was also a cause of aversion. Henry, Earl of Surrey, the duke's son, had made himself even more obnoxious to Henry. In the unguarded warmth and impulsiveness of youth, he had expressed a desire or intention to marry the Lady Mary, who afterwards ascended the throne. These circumstances and influences acted violently upon Henry's jealous, uncontrolled temper, and incited him to the detestable tyranny of ordering the arrest of both father and son, who were lodged in the Tower in December 1546, on a charge of alleged conspiracy. Norfolk was the leading Catholic nobleman in England, and it was easy to suppose him favourable to a restoration of the papal power. The acts of Surrey were more pronounced. He was entitled, as a collateral descendant of the Plantagenets, to bear the arms of England in the second quarter of his shield; he, however, had the temerity to place these

heraldic symbols in the first quarter, which belonged only to the heir-apparent to the throne. Surrey's wit and learning, so ably exercised at his trial, failed to save him, and avert his determined doom; he was convicted of treason, and beheaded on Tower Hill, 19th January 1547. Norfolk's attainder was expeditiously obtained from a subservient Parliament summoned for the purpose. He was tried and condemned unheard, and orders were issued for his execution on the morning of the 29th January. Happily, the unenviable record of Henry VIII. closed on the evening of the 28th, when he was summoned to meet *his* Judge, and Norfolk's life was spared. He survived till the commencement of Mary's reign in 1554.

The character of this Duke of Norfolk is fully illustrated by his life. He was a prudent counsellor, a brave warrior, a loyal subject, and a devoted lover of his country.

## ANDREW BARTON, HIGH ADMIRAL OF SCOTLAND.



### CHAPTER XXI.

#### THE EXTINCTION OF THE SCOTTISH FLEET.

THE fifteenth century was a great era of maritime adventure and discovery, in which Scotland scarcely took its full share, attributable, it may be supposed, to the troubled state of the country, and the poverty of the sovereigns and of the national resources. Scotland had no navy, ships engaged in the Scottish service being merchant vessels, and the property of private individuals. Although the country had not an organised naval force, it was not because it lacked either fit and proper sailors or competent commanders. Though they had not means for the prosecution of costly and tedious voyages of discovery in search of unknown lands, they were more than willing to trade to mutual advantage with the countries already known. The long

peace with England that followed the reign of Henry VII. left at liberty for other enterprises many of the sturdy adventurers that had found a vent for their restless activity in land fights and forays. Mercantile marine enterprise was for Scottish adventurers to the full as hazardous as it could be for any other nationality. They had no neighbouring marine power with whom they could act in concert for mutual security and advantage. The sailing merchant trader, in many cases owner of craft and cargo, needed to know something more to ensure success in his enterprises than how to buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market; he was more than a mere trader or supercargo. He needed to know how to sail his ship, and how to protect his cargo from capture or pillage by arms as need might require. Adventure of the nature indicated was attractive to many Scotsmen, with whose circumstances and temperament maritime enterprise was quite in accord.

Many distinguished merchant captains sailing from Scottish ports flourished in the reigns of James III. and James IV. Notably among these were Sir Andrew Wood of Largo, Sir Alexander Mathieson, William Merrimonth of Leith, who was so renowned for naval skill as to be honoured with the title, "King of the Sea," and the Bartons.

The Barton family, that for two generations produced naval commanders of great celebrity, became first known

in Scottish history about the middle of the fifteenth century.

John Barton, father of Andrew Barton, future High Admiral of Scotland, was an enterprising merchant captain, who fell into the hands of the Portuguese pirates,—the scourge and terror of the seas,—by whom he was plundered and murdered. He had three manly sons, brought up to seafaring life, who determined that their father's death should not be allowed to pass unquestioned or unavenged. Andrew Barton, the eldest of the three, and hence head of the family, instituted a trial in Flanders, the piratical crime having been committed in Flemish waters. He obtained a verdict against the Portuguese authorities, by whom it was treated with contempt, and payment of the penalty refused point blank. Andrew then applied to his own sovereign for redress. King James promptly sent a herald to the King of Portugal, with instructions to state the case and demand damages. This application also was unheeded, whereupon James granted letters of reprisal, or, according to the more modern phrase, letters of marque, authorising the holders to indemnify themselves from the Portuguese, without becoming obnoxious to the charge of piracy. The bold Bartons were better pleased by having such a commission as this given to them than they had been in waiting for the decisions of Flemish law courts, or for the results of

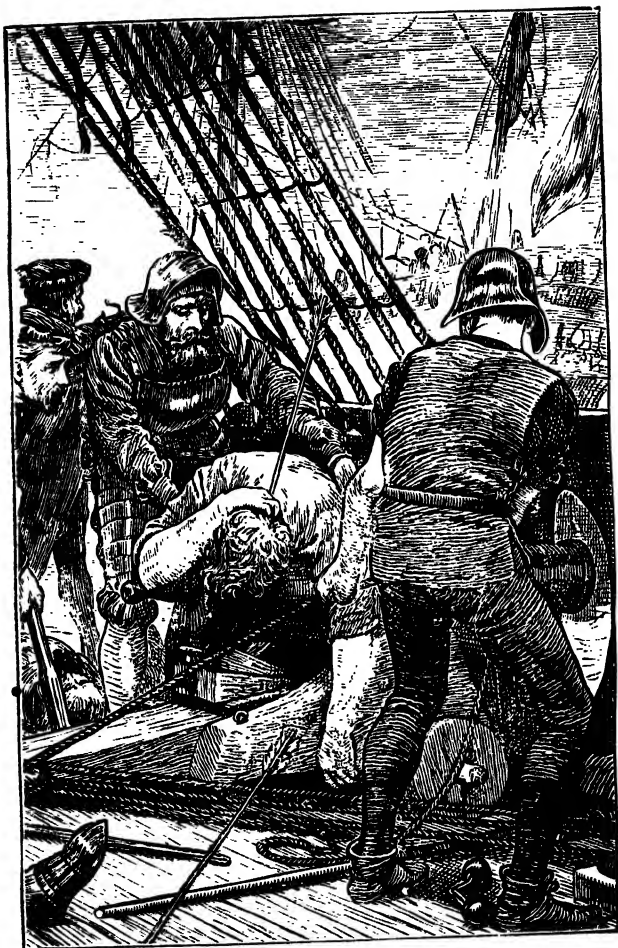
messages to and fro of heralds and kings' messengers. Empowered to obtain for themselves, if they could, the redress they sought for their family wrongs, they promptly, heroically, and successfully put their powers to the test, and soon gave the Portuguese authorities and merchants reasons for regret that the first demand, probably moderate and reasonable, of the Bartons for compensation was not met in what would have proved for the Portuguese a more excellent way than leaving the wronged and wrathful Scotsmen to pay themselves. They might have made sure that the canny Scots, if they had the option, would rather err on the side of over than under payment—and so they did. The Bartons, with Andrew as commander, took to cruising in the track in which they might expect to fall in with the richly-laden argosies of Portugal, homeward bound from India and South America. They very soon fully indemnified themselves, in so far as property is concerned, for the loss sustained through their sire. They could not, of course, obtain the restoration of his life, but took compensation in the only way open to them, in the considerable balance of value carried over, after his lost ship and cargo were paid for. The gallant manner in which the Bartons settled their accounts with the Portuguese on the high seas brought them both riches and renown. They were among the heroes of their day. The cargoes they captured included

occasionally curious elements, about as marketable as so many white elephants would have been. With tropical produce, raw or manufactured, they had little difficulty, but the Hindoo and other coloured captives that they took over as parts of the cargoes of the ships they captured, were a rather embarrassing kind of goods to dispose of. But these peculiar items had their special value, and secured for the captors a high price, although not in the current coin of the realm. The dusky-skinned orientals were not presentable at fair or market. The inhabitants generally regarded them with wondering dread. The gay and festive James IV., a man of culture in advance of his time, knew how to turn the darkies to account. He had them drilled and made to do duty in his court masks and pageants as Ethiopian queens and African sorcerers. News did not fly as fast or as far then as now, nor was intelligence touching remarkable events so widely spread. The resources of "puir auld Scotland," as shown by the remarkable cast of these court plays, caused considerable sensation in the courts of neighbouring nations. England, with all its wealth and power and advancement, could not put forward real natives to fill tropical parts. The possession of these performers was attributed to Scottish enterprise and maritime supremacy. It was in reality only an accidental result of Andrew Barton and his brother being en-



couraged to avenge the plunder and murder of their father.

The achievements of the Bartons at sea suggested to James IV. higher service to their country than finding mummers for his court plays. He was an enthusiast in naval affairs, and had a stronger conviction as to the value of a navy, as a support of the kingdom, than had possessed any of his predecessors. The necessity of possessing this arm of power was especially felt in relation to the subjugation and control of the Western Isles. These had ever been a national trouble. In unsettled times they made raids upon the mainland, ravaging it with fire and sword. To reduce them to complete subjection, James led an army against them in person, and employed John Barton, one of the three brothers, to co-operate with him, and with a fleet to invade them by sea. The superiority of the naval power in such a contest was speedily made apparent. The islanders, as they had done so often before, retreated from the royal army in their galleys and took refuge in their rock-bound coasts, where the army could not follow them. Attacked by Barton's fleet, they found that these were no longer places of safety; nor were even their strong castles, which were successfully bombarded by the fleet. The expedition was completely successful; the islanders yielded themselves to the royal authority. John Barton has to be credited with having planted the



HOWARD'S ARCHERS.



Scottish flag as a symbol of sovereignty upon islands that had been up to that time strongholds of rebellion.

While John Barton was thus distinguishing himself as a Scottish naval commander, his elder brother Andrew was vindicating abroad at sea the honour and dignity of the Scottish nation. He had been entrusted with the chief direction of maritime affairs, and the formation of a navy. Ferocious piracy was a vice that prevailed among the maritime communities of the period,—notably among the Dutch, as well as the Portuguese. A small fleet of Scottish merchant vessels fell into the hands of the Hollanders, who plundered the vessels, murdered the crews, and cast their bodies dishonoured into the sea. This outrage—Scotland and Holland being at the time at peace with each other—was not to be tolerated, and Andrew Barton was commissioned to get together a squadron wherewith to go forth and avenge it, which he did with merciless severity. He captured many of the piratical ships, put their crews to death, filled a number of empty casks he found on board with their heads, and sent them home to his sovereign by way of report as to the way in which he had fulfilled his mission.

The notable achievements of the Bartons did not escape the notice of Pope Julius II., to whom it occurred that they might be used as instruments, although against their own will, in enabling him to carry out his tortuous policy of self-aggrandisement. War

between France and England would have been unfavourable to his designs, but active hostilities between England and Scotland would serve his purpose well, and his holiness accordingly instructed Portuguese envoys at the court of Henry VIII., to represent the whole family of Bartons to be ruthless, unscrupulous pirates, who plundered indiscriminately the ships of all nations. Andrew Barton in particular was charged with these offences, and it was urged that it was most desirable that he should be crushed, and swept from English seas. Henry, with his characteristic impetuosity, accepted these representations, although a war with Scotland at that time was eminently undesirable. The representations of the pope's emissaries were to a certain extent supported by English writers, who more than insinuated that Andrew Barton had been in a degree unscrupulous in acting upon his letters of reprisal, and that he had overhauled and pillaged English as well as Portuguese vessels, on the pretext that they had Portuguese goods on board. This opinion prevailed in England, and was warmly held by the Earl of Surrey, then at the head of naval affairs in England. The earl vowed that English waters should no longer be thus infested while his estate could furnish a ship to be engaged against it, and his family had a son to command such ship. The earl fitted out two men-of-war, one of them the largest that had ever been built for the English

Navy, and sent them forth in command of his two sons, Sir Thomas Howard and Sir Edward Howard, to find, and, if possible, subdue and capture these terrible Scottish sea-rovers. They heard concerning them speedily from the captain of a merchant vessel whom the Bartons had plundered near the Downs. Andrew Barton had just returned from a cruise against the Portuguese, and was in command of two vessels—the *Lion*, which he occupied, and a small armed pinnace. The Howards in approaching Barton put up willow wands on their masts, implying pacific intentions, but when they got near enough they hoisted their national flag and fired a broadside into the *Lion*. Although greatly overmatched, Barton advanced fearlessly to the encounter. Distinguished by his splendid dress and glittering armour of proof, with a gold chain around his neck, and a gold whistle appended, the emblem of his office as High Admiral of Scotland, he took his place upon the highest part of the *Lion's* deck for the direction of the action and the stimulation to valour of his trusty crew. The battle was fought with desperate obstinacy and daring bravery on both sides. A mode of attack in naval warfare that had been employed by the old Romans against the Carthaginians, was practised by Andrew Barton, although he knew nothing probably of the origin of the manœuvre. It consisted of dropping large crushing weights from the yards of one ship to the

deck of the enemy, when they were locked together in action. It was a tremendous power, but the device had one grand defect, men had to go aloft and offer themselves as targets for the marksmen, ere they could release the weight and deliver the blow upon the enemy's deck ; the cranks and mechanical contrivances for releasing pile-driven blocks and other operations were then unknown. Howard seems to have been aware of this mode of attack, and appointed his best archers to the duty of watching and foiling any attempt on the part of any of Barton's crew to go aloft. Two men who had attempted to ascend were shot in succession, and Andrew Barton himself made the attempt. This was a golden opportunity, and Howard shouted to his archer, "Shoot, William, and shoot true, on peril of thy life !" The man replied dolorously, "An I were to die for't, I have but two arrows left." The last of the two sped home, and brought the crisis of the battle. The first arrow glanced off Barton's mail, but the second shaft entered a joint of his armour while he had his arm uplifted in the act of climbing. The arrow inflicted a mortal wound through the armpit. Barton was unable to execute the work for which he had thus imperilled his life, but turned and bravely descended, shouting to his men, "Fight on, my merry men ! I am but little hurt. I will rest me awhile, and will soon join you again. Stand you fast by the cross of St.



DEATH OF ANDREW BARTON.

"Fight on, my merry men ! I am but little hurt. I will rest me awhile,  
and will soon join you again."





Andrew." He blew his whistle continuously for the encouragement of his men, and kept sounding it as long as he had the power, but his end had come, and his ship was only surrendered with his life. The *Lion* and the *Jenny Pirwen*, its little consort, the pinnace, were brought into the Thames in triumph.

James IV. greatly lamented the death of this naval hero, who had been the director of the king's nautical studies, in which he was much interested, and had been the means of making the infant Scottish Navy distinguished among European maritime powers. The king despatched the *Rothsay* herald to London to complain of this breach of peace and to demand redress. Henry VIII. sent reply that Barton was a pirate, and that the fate of pirates was not a fit subject of contention for princes. This reply was eminently unsatisfactory, and the king at once furnished Robert Barton, one of Andrew's brothers, with letters of reprisal against the English. Robert set to work with a will, swept the seas, and in a little while returned to Leith with a fleet of thirteen English merchant vessels. War on land followed. King James could not be reconciled to the loss of his high admiral. He sent a letter of remonstrance and defiance, and followed it forthwith by an invasion of England by land, which ended in the disastrous battle of Flodden and the extinction of the Scottish fleet.

## SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.—I.



### CHAPTER XXII.

#### THE WORLD ENCOMPASSED.

THE character and achievements of a man are of much greater importance than his parentage, and some men shine with a native lustre that can dispense with accidental light from lineage. Francis Drake was such a man. His family and its rank, and his relations, have furnished topics for much unprofitable discussion. Whether his father was a clergyman or a humble seaman, whether Sir Francis Russell, afterwards Earl of Bedford, was his godfather, and whether Sir John Hawkins was his relative, all of which points have been discussed, matters little; his native powers and qualities achieved for him an eminence to which he could not have been raised by even the most influential friends or patrons.

Francis Drake was the eldest of twelve sons, the greater number of whom, like their renowned elder

brother, went to sea. He was born near Tavistock, Devonshire, about the year 1545, and was partly educated and looked after by Sir John Hawkins, said to have been a family relation. At an early age young Drake was apprenticed to a sailing-ship owner, who traded between England, Zealand, and France. The youth liked the occupation, was an apt learner, and soon became an active and able sailor. His fidelity and usefulness secured the cordial goodwill of his master, who died while Drake was still quite a youth. The master had no family, and left his ship to his young friend, in whom there had been already awakened aspirations that were not to be satisfied by short coasting voyages in home waters. The young owner accordingly sold his ship, and, at the early age of eighteen, obtained an appointment as purser to a ship trading to Biscay. At twenty he made a voyage to Guinea in the squadron of his reputed relative, Captain John Hawkins, who was engaged in the lucrative, though not then considered infamous, slave trade. Drake, although still a very young man, had given such evidence of character and ability as to induce his being entrusted with the command of the *Judith*. Having completed his cargo of slaves, Hawkins and his squadron sailed for the Canaries and Spanish America, there to exchange the human cargo for commodities of marketable value at home. The governor of Rio del Hacha refused to trade with Hawkins, whereupon that

gallant filibuster without ceremony took the town. These and other remarkable transactions referred to in this narrative transpired, the reader may be reminded, more than three hundred years ago, when social aspects and relations, and moral perceptions, were very different from what they are now.

Hawkins, with his squadron, which had been considerably knocked about, had to put in at the port of St. Juan de Ulloa for shelter and provisions. To the authorities Hawkins professed peace and amity, and his intention to pay for what he might take in stores or provisions,—but not being quite at ease as to the treatment he might receive, he kept two persons of local consequence as hostages for his safety and for the good conduct of those who had power to thwart him. There were twelve merchant ships in the port, with cargoes estimated at £200,000 value, which Hawkins could easily have taken, but he virtuously resisted the temptation. His position in the port was unpleasant and critical. He communicated with the Viceroy of Mexico, and meantime an expected Spanish fleet arrived, and was admitted into the harbour. Mutual salutations were given, hostages were exchanged between Hawkins and the Spaniards, and a treaty of amity was drawn up and signed. All the while, however, an attack upon the English was intended, and, after full preparation, was treacherously made. Only two of the English ships



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.



escaped, one of them the *Judith*, the small ship commanded by Drake. Unequally matched although they were, the English, by their desperate valour, burned and sank a number of the Spanish ships. In this affair Drake lost all his property, and at the same time acquired something else that he never lost — intense hatred and distrust of Spaniards. He meditated reprisals, and, on arriving home, proposed a hostile expedition to the Spanish American colonies, which met with ready support, although Spain and England were then at peace.

The outrage at St. Juan de Ulloa was perpetrated in September 1568. In 1570 Drake returned to Mexico with two ships; but it was not till 1572 that he could make his first daring attempt at reprisal. His force consisted of only two small vessels—the *Pacha*, of 70 tons, which he commanded, and the *Swan*, of 25 tons, in charge of his brother, Mr. John Drake. His force consisted of seventy-three men and boys all told. He was reinforced, however, on the way, by Captain Rause, an adventurer, with a bark manned by fifty men. Drake arrived at Nombre de Dios on the 28th July, and attacked it in the night, but was forced to retire, himself badly wounded, and with no booty worth mention. From the Symaroons, a tribe of disaffected negroes or Indians, who hated the Spaniards, Drake obtained information as to the route by which the Spaniards conveyed



treasure from Panama to Nombre de Dios. He determined to waylay and rob the caravan. His first attempt to loot the treasure train was spoilt by a drunken sailor, whose unseasonable noise led to the ambush being discovered. Drake was disappointed at Nombre de Dios, but was more successful at Venta de Cruz, a half-way station for caravans crossing the isthmus. Here he took considerable booty, which he generously shared with those who had trusted him in the venture. Although more than willing to spoil the Spaniards, Drake was not mercenary or selfish. In acknowledging the gift of Drake's handsome cutlass, which he had presented to Pedro, chief of the Symaroons, Pedro begged Drake's acceptance of four large wedges of gold, which the commander generously threw into the common stock, to be shared by all.

On the 11th February 1573, in company with his Symaroon guide, and a few others of the expedition, Drake reached a height on the Isthmus of Panama, where he obtained his first sight of the great South Pacific Ocean—a sight that filled him with rapture. In his enthusiasm he is said to have “lifted up his hands towards heaven, and implored the blessing of God upon the resolution then formed, that he would sail an English ship in those seas.” It was on the twelfth day after leaving the shores of the Caribbean Sea that this eminence was reached; it has been described as part of a

ridge on the isthmus, lying east and west between the two seas.

Drake's enthusiasm, however, did not divert him from contemplation of "the main chance," or extinguish the hope that "God might suffer him to be a further plague to the Spanish nation," and lighten their load of treasure to his own advantage. A string of treasure-carrying mules fell into Drake's hands. The gold, and as much of the silver as they could carry away, was appropriated, and the remainder buried, until such time as Providence might enable them to revisit that auriferous region. Drake and his company had barely time to get on board their ships with their plunder when a force of about three hundred Spanish soldiers, specially sent to circumvent him, reached the shore, too late to serve the purpose of those who sent them. Drake was thus encouraged to believe that "God suffered him to escape their hands that he might be a further plague unto the Spaniards." This pious conclusion, strange though it may seem, indicates the aspect of the matter to the adventurer.

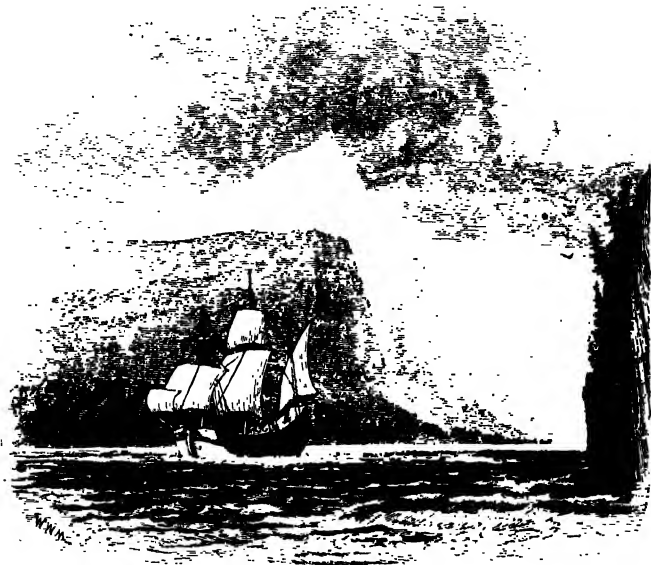
With considerable wealth Drake returned to England, and had a remarkably fast and favourable voyage. He was only twenty-three days between Cape Florida and the Scilly Isles, and landed at Plymouth, 29th August 1573, having been absent on this expedition one year, two months, and a few days. His arrival was on a Sunday afternoon, when the people were at church ;

somehow the news reached them in the sacred fane, and caused a stampede. "The whole congregation quitted the church, and ran to the quay to congratulate their brave fellow-countryman on his safe return from his dangerous adventures."

His success in this expedition excited admiration, but also generated enmity and depreciation of his achievements, which for a time hindered arrangements for a more ambitious expedition. After serving as a volunteer in the suppression of the rebellion in Ireland, he became known to Sir Christopher Hatton, vice-chamberlain to Queen Elizabeth, to whom Drake was introduced by Sir Christopher. He proposed to the queen, who warmly supported the project, a voyage to the South Seas, *via* the Straits of Magellan. This was the ostensible project, but it was suspected that Drake had designs in connection with it that "he did not confide to any one."

The expedition was got together; it consisted of five vessels of light burden, the largest not more than 100 tons, viz. the *Pelican*, afterwards the *Golden Hind*, commanded by Drake as captain-general. It was indisputably a daring adventure to attempt the navigation of such wild and tempestuous seas as those surrounding Terra del Fuego, with such light craft—they included two pinnaces of 12 and 15 tons respectively. Little was then known of that region, and what was known of it was calculated to inspire with fear. It was regarded

as a barrier that Providence had interposed between the known and unknown world, and it was considered as almost inviting a "judgment" to attempt to pierce or pass it. Magellan's life was sacrificed to the pursuit of



THE STRAITS OF MAGELLAN.

knowledge in this inhospitable region, that had much to repel and nothing to attract European adventurers.

It was a remarkable fleet, under the direction of an extraordinary commander. Drake had with him some kindred spirits, and, in the aggregate crews of the fleet,

164 gentleman adventurers and sailors. They were amply supplied with ordinary stores, but Drake did not consider this sufficient; he did not know what sort of people they might meet with in the unknown regions he expected to visit; he anticipated, as fully as forethought could help him, all that might facilitate intercourse with native races, impress them favourably with a sense of the dignity of his country, that he was "a citizen of no mean city," and secure the success of the enterprise. He could not effect much in the way of providing a grand saloon in a ship of 100 tons, but he made the most he could of his scope for opulent display. His own ship furniture and equipage were splendid; a complete service of silver for his table, even some of his cooking vessels being of the same precious metal; the whole of his cabin appointments were of the richest materials and elaborate workmanship. He had even a band of musicians on board for the entertainment of the ship's company and possible visitors.

The expedition sailed from Plymouth 15th November 1577, but had to put back into Falmouth for repair of damages received in a storm, and did not get clear away till the 13th December. They reached the coast of Barbary 25th March 1578; Cape Verd, 29th; crossed the line 13th March, and made the coast of Brazil 5th April. Shortly after this they entered the Rio de la Plata, where two of the vessels went amissing, but were

afterwards recovered, had their stores taken out, and were abandoned. It may be mentioned that Drake's squadron had picked up at sea a few "unconsidered trifles," to wit, three caunters, or Spanish fishing-boats, and as many caravels; a ship at Cape Blanco, with only two men on board; a Portuguese ship bound to Brazil, laden with wine, cloth, and general merchandise. In vindication of this seizure, and for the satisfaction of the scrupulous, it should be mentioned that at this time Portugal was annexed to the crown of Spain, which would doubtless enable the English navigators to reconcile this act with their consciences. The Portuguese ship had a good many passengers on board, whom Drake generously released at the first safe and convenient place, presenting them with their own clothes! and giving them in addition a butt of excellent wine, provisions, and other commodities and privileges.

On the 27th of April the squadron emerged from the La Plata and stood southward, and on the 17th May anchored in a good port in  $47\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  south latitude. Here seals were so plentiful that upwards of two hundred were killed in an hour. From their anchorage in Seal Bay, as they named it, the party sailed on the 3rd June, and on the 12th came to anchor in another bay  $50^{\circ} 20'$  south.\* Here they had first some friendly intercourse, and afterwards, through a misunderstanding, a fight, with a number of the reputedly gigantic Patagonians. One of

Drake's commanders was wounded with an arrow, and after a time died of the wound; and Oliver, gunner, who levelled his piece at the natives, and made himself a target for a shower of arrows, was killed outright. The squadron next anchored in the port St. Julian, off Magellan, where an unhappy incident occurred, in his relation to which Drake has been praised by some critics and denounced by others. Mr. Thomas Doughty, an officer in the fleet, said to have enjoyed in a high degree the affection and confidence of the captain-general, was charged with conspiracy and mutiny, with having a design to murder Drake and the principal officers, and thus defeat the whole expedition. The details of this sad affair are scanty and obscure, causing much perplexity by the absence of any specific facts or grounds for the charge against Doughty, who was tried by a jury of twelve men, found guilty, and beheaded, on the 2nd July 1578.

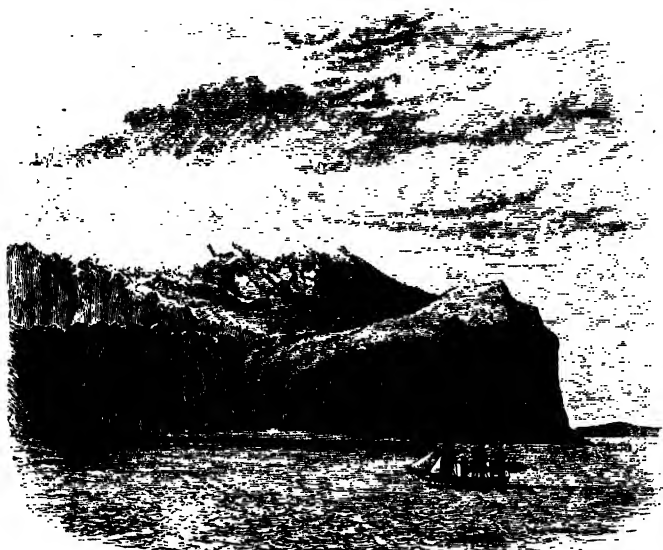
On the 20th August the squadron, reduced in number to three vessels, some of the small craft and prizes having been broken up for firewood or sent adrift, entered the Straits of Magellan; on the 24th they anchored thirty leagues within the strait; on the 6th September Drake passed out by the western entrance, and attained the long desired triumph of sailing an English ship on the Southern Ocean. The passage through the strait in from twelve to fifteen days gave proof of excellent seamanship.

The length of the strait Drake computed at one hundred and ten leagues; the medium breadth about one league. The voyagers, in passing through the straits, observed and experienced much that was extraordinary and remarkable, and a good deal that was disagreeable, in anthropology, natural history, and climatology. They had met with a race of giants on the eastern coast of Patagonia; in the straits they came upon a tribe of native pigmies, as much below as the Patagonians were above the average height of men. On the wild, rocky islets and promontories in the straits they came upon an exceeding great army on parade, of birds without wings, stiff and erect though fat, standing in rows at "attention," ready to be shot down, and the party did shoot or otherwise slay three thousand of the stupid innocents—penguins. Of weather, and such variety as marked it, nothing favourable can be said. "Paradoxical though it may seem to natives of our northern latitude, balmy breezes, sunny fountains, and such like delights lay far to Nor'ards, and the climatic conditions in that latitude were dark, dismal, and gruesome, including snow, sleet, piercing cold, murky sky, fierce winds, and furious seas."

One main object Drake cherished in this expedition was the discovery of a North-West passage. On clearing the straits he held a north-west course, and in two days the fleet had advanced seventy leagues. Here they



encountered a violent gale from the north-east, that drove them into  $57^{\circ}$  south, and two hundred leagues west of the straits. On the 30th November the *Marigold* was separated from the *Elizabeth* and the *Golden Hind*, the name that Drake gave his ship on entering the South



CAPE FROWARD, STRAITS OF MAGELLAN.

Sea. They made the land, but the *Marigold* was driven to sea, and was never more heard of. The *Elizabeth* and *Golden Hind* reached a bay near the western Entrance of Magellan's Straits, which was afterwards named the "Bay of Parting Friends." During the night the *Hind*

parted her cable and drove to sea. Captain Winter did not attempt to follow his commander, and this may be taken as the break-up of the expedition, but not the end of it in so far as Drake is concerned. Winter returned to England, passing by the same way that the expedition had come, eastward through the straits. Drake, with the *Hind*, had a shallop, with eight seamen on board, in company. The calamity befell of the shallop parting company with the *Hind*, from the wildness of the storm, the men in the shallop being almost without provisions. They soon lost all hope of rejoining Drake, but were so far fortunate as to regain the straits, where they salted and stored penguins, and contrived, after going through great perils, to return through the straits in their frail bark, and actually to reach the La Plata, where they were attacked by Indians, from whom they escaped to a small desolate island, upon which the shallop was dashed to pieces, and where they remained for two months, suffering indescribably, among other things, from want of water. The sole survivor—Peter Carder—was in captivity for nine years, part of the time the companion of savages, and a Portuguese captive and slave for the remainder. He lived, however, to return to England, and had the honour of relating his adventures—an account of which is given in Purchas' *Pilgrim*—to Queen Elizabeth, who treated him kindly and generously.

On the 28th October Drake was able to come to

anchor in twenty fathoms water, and within gunshot of land. To the numerous islands in the neighbourhood of Cape Horn, he, in honour of his royal mistress, gave the general name of the Elizabethides. He landed upon the most southerly point of South America, and told his crew, on his return on board, that he had been farther south on land than any man living.

Leaving the neighbourhood of the straits, where he remained cruising till near the end of November, Drake sailed on a north-westerly course, but afterwards bore more to the east, to regain and keep sight of land. On the 25th November they anchored at the island of Mocha, off the coast of Chili, where, being mistaken for Spaniards, whom the natives hated, they were attacked, two of Drake's men were killed, and all the others of the party, including the captain-general himself, more or less severely wounded. Sailing farther along the coast, they anchored in a bay 32° S. By acceptable presents to the Indians, Drake obtained valuable information. He had passed Valparaiso by about six leagues, and learned that a Spanish vessel with a rich cargo was lying at anchor at the port of St. Jago. Drake secured the services of Felipe, an intelligent Indian, to pilot him back to the ship, destined, he hoped, to become his prize. On the 4th December the expedition sailed from Philip's Bay, as they named it in honour of their Indian pilot. The name, it may be presumed, is perpetuated in the San

Felipe of modern geography. Without bloodshed or fighting, Drake took possession of the Spanish ship, the *Grand Captain* of the South Seas, and with it 60,000 pesos of gold (about £24,000), besides jewels, merchandise, and 1770 jars of Chilian wine. The people of the little town fled, and the adventurers, who had fared hardly for a long time, indulged in the luxury of an unlimited free feast upon the best that the larders and wine cellars of the port contained, consuming on the spot quite as much as was good for them, and helping themselves liberally to whatever was available for ship's stores, or for "conversion" when they might reach a market for the "lifted" commodities. Although the church of Valparaiso was cleared of its sacred vessels and other portable objects, the captain-general was too religious a man—in his way—to commit sacrilege, and the silver chalice, altar-cloth, and other things taken from the church, were presented to Mr. Fletcher, "chaplain" of Drake's fleet. This discriminating appropriation was made, doubtless, in the hope that it might secure a blessing upon the expedition. They sailed on the 8th with their prize, but took with them only one man of the crew, Juan Griego, who was found capable of piloting them to Lima. Felipe, who had served his turn, was rewarded, and put on shore near his own home.

The *Hind* was not sufficiently handy for scouring the

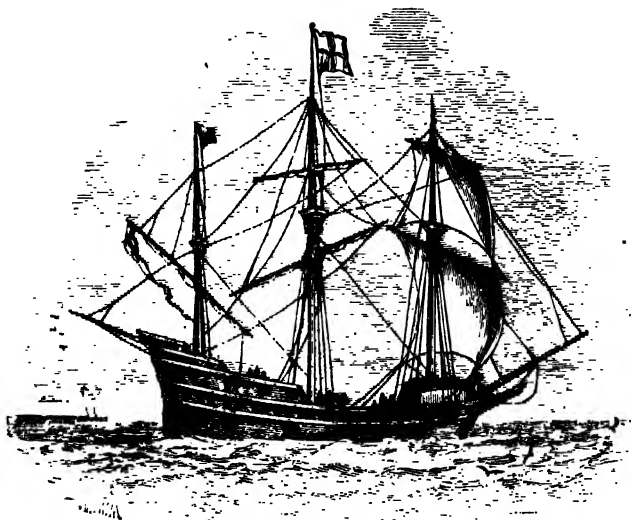
coast, and Drake set up, near Coquimbo, a pinnacle for that purpose. In his voyage from the south he had been constantly on the lookout for his former lighter attendants, the *Marigold* and the *Elizabeth*, but without success. On the 19th January 1579, they quitted the harbour where they had been resting and refreshing. The next achievements of the adventurers were little better than acts of petty larceny. Landing accidentally at Tarapaza, they found a Spaniard asleep with thirteen bars of silver lying beside him, which they, of course, appropriated, as also, a little farther and later on, eight lamas in charge of a Spaniard and an Indian. Each beast was laden with two leathern bags, each bag containing fifty lbs. of silver. The clearing party, in shipping the lamas and their loads, did not embarrass themselves in assessing the value of their prizes with any vain speculations as to bimetallism or the rate of exchange; silver was a safe commodity. As for the beasts, they carried in addition to the load of silver, fleeces of fine wool, and their flesh was also good eating, a sort of cross between beef and mutton, the lama being as big as a good-sized donkey.

After the seizure of the lama caravan, the *Golden Hind* entered the port of Arica, and rifled a few small barks that lay there. The visitors did not consider themselves quite strong enough to ransack the town, or would have done so with pleasure. They next sailed for Lima, to

which intelligence of their doings had been sent overland; but Drake outstripped the messenger, and he reached the harbour of Callao in time to overhaul the ships there, which contained, they found, a disgustingly small amount of portable and valuable property. In one ship, however, a chest of ryals of plate, and a considerable store of linens, silks, and general merchandise claimed attention, and were thought worth removing. From his prisoners Drake ascertained that a few days previous to his capturing them, the *Cacafuego*, laden with treasure, had sailed for Panama, from which precious metals and goods were carried across the isthmus. This information at once determined his course, Northward ho! To prevent followers, the main-masts of the two largest prizes found here were cut away, the cables of the smaller vessels were severed, and all of them abandoned, to be picked up as derelicts, to founder, or be wrecked, as might befall—they were of no further use to the expedition, and if they could not help they would not be allowed to hinder the captain's enterprise.

Intelligence of Drake's piratical exploits having reached Lima, Don Francisco de Toledo, the viceroy, was in waiting to receive him with two ships, each carrying two hundred fighting men, and a land force of two thousand horse and foot. The speedy capture of the pirate-heretic was considered a certainty. Greatly over-matched as he would have been by the Spaniards, it would

have been worse than foolish to have stopped to fight them. The object now claiming Drake's undivided attention was the treasure-laden *Cacafuego*, of which they were in pursuit. The Don's ships that had left port in the hope of bringing Drake back with them, had never got within



DRAKE'S "GOLDEN HIND.

range of his precious argosy, and they had put to sea without provisions, for stock of which they were accordingly obliged to return, leaving the heretic to pursue his course northwards. Don Toledo sent out a second force of three fully equipped ships, to kill or catch Drake, but

they were unable to do either. He made all sail, and was towed by the boats when the wind fell. Although intercourse with the Don's emissaries had been evaded, Drake did not ignore the existence of other ships he fell in with, or neglect taking tribute from them. In one of these, which was rifled and sent adrift near Païta, a quantity of merchandise, including silver ornaments, was found; in another, a quantity of silver and eighty lbs. of gold, and a golden crucifix set with large precious stones. The takings also included a good supply of useful stores, and a large quantity of cordage. Drake's crew were as eager in pursuit as he could be himself, but to further animate the hopes and quicken the vigilance of the men, he offered the gold chain he wore as a prize to the man who should first descry the ship they were after; it was won by Mr. John Drake, the commander's brother. On the 24th February the *Golden Hind* crossed the line; on the 1st March the unsuspecting *Cacafuego* was sighted, the gallant captain of which, Juan de Anton, a Biscayan, innocently took the corsair for a Spanish vessel bearing some special message from the viceroy, and actually slackened sail to allow the pursuer to come up with him. When he discovered his mistake, he attempted to sheer off, but it was too late; he was totally unarm'd for either attack or defence, and was dominated by Drake's guns. He did not surrender until his mizzenmast was shot away and himself wounded. On the



same day that it was sighted, this truly grand prize was boarded and taken. The *Cacafuego* carried twenty-six tons of silver, thirty chests of ryals of plate, eighty lbs. of gold, with a quantity of diamonds and gems, the estimated value of the whole being not less than 360,000 pesos, or £144,000. The *Golden Hind* had now, it may be supposed, taken in her full cargo, and was ready for the homeward voyage. The object of the adventurers, in having collected a freight of such immense value, was no doubt fully attained so far, and if a plebiscite had been taken, every vote, probably, excepting that of the general, would have been for "home, if, and as soon as, we can get." But plunder, and revenge upon the Spaniards, was not Drake's exclusive aim and object. The enthusiasm he manifested on the ridge of Darien when he got sight of the South Pacific was not affected, he was really in spirit an adventurous explorer; and although his crew might be satisfied with plunder, he had higher aims—discovery of a North-West passage between the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans was an idea that he continued to cherish. The success of the expedition had increased his power; he was master of the situation, and his companions and crew had no choice but submit to his will as sailing master and pilot. If he needed to use powers of persuasion, he had an unanswerable argument against attempting to reach home by the way they had come.

They were doubtless expected back again, and the dons would be well prepared to give them a warm reception. Even although they gave a wide berth to Callao, Valparaiso, and the other ports on the west coast that they had visited and spoiled in their voyage northwards, and could reach the Straits of Magellan, they would there be trapped, spoiled of the fruits of their enterprise, and give their necks to the halter.

Although usually reticent concerning his plans, Drake thought it well now to disclose them to the ship's company. He succeeded in persuading them that their best course under present circumstances would be to find first some convenient place to trim the ship, and store it with wood, water, and such provisions as they might be able to find, and when fully ready, to proceed on their voyage in quest of the much desired North-West passage. They steered for Nicaragua, and on the 16th March anchored in a small bay off the island of Canno, which proved a good station to water and refit. Here they took a prize laden with honey, butter, sarsaparilla, and other commodities, with some valuable papers, including sea-charts that were on passage from the King of Spain to the Governor of the Philippine Islands. On the 6th of April another prize was taken, but the plethoric cargo already carried by the *Hind* made the task of selection embarrassing. It was thought room could be found for the choicest portions of the silks, linens,

and delicate porcelain found in the prize, and for a falcon of finely wrought gold, with a large emerald set in its breast. The vessel with her crew was dismissed, excepting one negro and a pilot to conduct the *Hind* to the harbour of Guatalco. The town was ransacked, but scarcely anything found in it for which room could be found in the *Hind*, excepting a bushel of ryals of plate, with a gold chain and some jewels, that Mr. John Winter, gentleman adventurer, working for his own hand, took from a Spaniard to whom they belonged, and who unreasonably attempted to retain them. All the Spaniards on board the *Golden Hind* were here turned out of that noble ship, to make a little more room for loot; also the Portuguese pilot, Nuno Silva, who had been honoured by impressment into the service of the expedition at the Cape de Verd Islands. Silva wrote an account of his voyage to the Portuguese viceroy in India.

In his voyage of discovery Drake reached to about 48° north. Although nearly midsummer, the cold was so intense that meat froze almost immediately on its being removed from the fire, and ropes and tackling containing moisture were quite rigid. On the 5th June land was seen, and on the 17th the *Hind* anchored in a good harbour on an inhabited coast. Here the ship, which had sprung a leak, was repaired, and intercourse was had with the natives, whose confidence was gained by Drake's considerate kindness. He was moved with

grief and horror by some of their wild religious orgies which he witnessed, and ordered divine service to be solemnised.

The natives are described as an amiable race, free, tractable, and kindly, and without guile. Drake made a short excursion into the interior, where he saw immense herds of fat deer, and swarms of a curious species of coney, about the size of Barbary rats. They had heads like those of English rabbits, paws like moles, tails like rats, and pouches under their chins, in which they carried supplies of food for their young, or for the carrier's own future use. The flesh of these creatures was wholesome, and their skins made fine furs, of which the state robes of the king furnished an excellent example.

The general and his company were the first Europeans who had visited this fair and fertile region, to which he gave the name of New Albion; the haven he named after himself—Port Drake. He erected a monument to record his discovery, nailing to it a brass plate bearing the name, arms, and effigy of the queen, asserting her territorial rights, and giving the date of possession being taken. The precise locality of Port Drake has not been fixed by geographers, and is not marked in our maps; it was probably somewhere between San Francisco and 40° north.

Having spent thirty-six days at this station, and repairs

upon the *Hind* having been completed, the voyage was resumed. The kind-hearted natives bewailed the departure of their new friends, and kept farewell fires burning upon the heights as long as the receding ship was in sight.

Sailing westwards, the *Hind* was sixty-eight days without sight of land. On the 13th September they came upon some islands lying in about 8° north. The natives had black teeth, nails an inch long, and were found to be incorrigible thieves. This group of gems of the sea was christened the "Islands of Thieves." They are since known as the Pelew Islands. Proceeding still westwards, the Philippines, in 7° 5' north, were reached on the 16th October, and on 3rd November the Moluccas. Here Drake found he would need to "walk warily." He was steering for Tidore, but learned that the Portuguese had been expelled from Ternate by the powerful king of that island, and had taken up their headquarters at Tidore; so Drake ordered the helm to be put about, and steered for Ternate, to pay court to the king thereof. The viceroy of Motir, who had boarded the *Hind*, and given Drake information as to the state of affairs, had prepared the king for his reception, which was flattering and favourable. Drake sent in a velvet cloak as a present to the king, and a respectful message that they desired to trade and procure refreshments. Ternate received the English

envoy with great pomp and ceremony, and paid a state visit to the *Hind* in the court barges, attended by a brilliant retinue. Drake's musicians turned out with "sackbuts, psalteries, and all manner of musick," to the great delight of King Ternate and his courtiers. The king is described as a tall, stout, graceful man, very ceremonious and stately; he was renowned as a warrior, and the sovereign over more than seventy islands. A splendid canopy embroidered with gold was carried over his head; he was bare-legged, but wore around his body a robe of cloth of gold, and on his feet a pair of real Cordovan slippers. After taking in provisions, water, and other necessities and comforts, Drake again set sail, and reached Celebes on the 14th November. Here they remained for a time, and the *Hind* underwent thorough repair. More curiosities were met with in natural productions: trees lofty and straight, without branches till near the top, where they had large tufts; crowds of fireflies, bats as big as hens, great land crabs that burrowed like rabbits, and many other wonderments. The *Hind* cruised amongst islands and shoals till the 9th January, when they thought they were clear, but on the evening of that day, about eight o'clock, the ship struck, and stuck fast upon a shelving rock. • The situation seemed utterly hopeless; a night of great anxiety was passed. The ship, heavily laden with treasure, drew thirteen feet of water, whereas

they found themselves with only six feet of water under them. Close to where the ship struck was deep water. To all appearance, the miserable end of the expedition had come, the loss of their treasure, the wreck of the ships, the sacrifice of their lives. There was no apathy or despair, or reckless sacrifice of gold and silver. Drake and the whole of the ship's company behaved with manliness and cool resolution. The chaplain was called in, the crew were summoned to prayers, sermon, and the Sacrament, a united effort was made to save their lives and—treasure. There might be hope in lightening the ship, and eight of the guns, three tons of cloves, and a quantity of meal were thrown into the sea. After resting on the rock from eight at night to four o'clock on the following afternoon, the ship gave a lurch over, and floated serenely in deep water.

On the 8th February they came to the island of Barratane, that, excepting Ternate, afforded a greater variety of excellent provision for their refreshment than any port they had touched since they had left England. They found it a pleasant, fruitful, and fertile island, with inhabitants well worthy of possessing it. Leaving Barratane, the *Hind* reached Java on the 12th March, and the company had much enjoyment in sojourning there for a time, but no delights could satisfy the growing impatience of the company to reach home, and

the next long stage across the Indian Ocean brought them to the Cape of Good Hope, which was passed on the 15th June. It required the dauntless intrepidity and experienced skill of such a navigator as Drake to venture with his small bark into this doubtful, almost untried navigation, that the Portuguese, who knew it best, represented to be stormy and perilous beyond anything elsewhere known to seamen.

On the 22nd July the *Hind* touched at Sierra Leone, where the voyagers refreshed themselves with fruits, took in water, and, continuing their homeward-bound voyage, without again touching land, they entered the harbour of Plymouth on the 26th September 1580, closing a series of voyages that had lasted for two years and ten months.

In his unprecedented achievement the great navigator had crossed every meridian of east and west longitude on the globe, and had crossed twice both of the torrid zones, his voyages extending between  $50\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  N. and  $54^{\circ}$  S., far into the north and south temperate zones.

The safe return of the expedition, the glory attending so magnificent an enterprise, and the immense mass of wealth brought home, caused Drake's arrival to be hailed as an event of great national importance. So indeed, it was, his success giving an incalculable impetus to the rapidly rising maritime spirit of the nation. The bravery, exploits, and wonderful adventures of Drake



became the theme of every tongue. The island from one end to the other was inspired with ardour by his splendid achievements, with a spirit that was to be manifested before long in a series of actions resulting from his expedition.

On the 4th of April 1581 Queen Elizabeth went to Deptford in state to honour Drake by dining with him in the *Golden Hind*, now lying there. Her gallant host, who loved show and magnificence, spared no pains or cost to make the banquet worthy of his royal guest. After dinner, the queen conferred upon Drake the honour of knighthood, enhancing the honour by the graceful declaration that his actions had done him more honour than any title could do that she could confer.

## SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.—II.



### CHAPTER XXIII.

#### THE DESTRUCTION OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

THE relations between England and Spain had for a long time prior to autumn 1585 been strained and unsatisfactory, drifting towards a declaration of war, which Drake's exasperating exploits among the Spanish settlements in South America may be supposed to have precipitated. In the event of war with Spain, Drake was more than willing to go into it with all his heart, and in anticipation of its being formally declared, he projected another hostile expedition. It was, as first planned, to consist of both land and sea forces, the first to be commanded by Sir Philip Sydney, and the other by Drake. The design to send a land force was abandoned, but the other portion of the project was persevered with, and Sir Francis Drake sailed for the coast of Spain at the head of a fleet of twenty-five sail,

including two queen's ships, with two thousand three hundred seamen and soldiers under his command. He had, as his lieutenant-general, Christopher Carlile; for his vice-admiral, Martin Frobisher, the celebrated navigator; with Captain Francis Knollys, and other officers of experience and good repute. In its cruise the fleet captured some small vessels. Reaching the Cape de Verd Islands, Drake, at the head of a small number of men, on the 17th November 1585, landed and took St. Iago. This occurred on the anniversary of Queen Elizabeth's accession, and the captors celebrated the event by firing a royal salute with the guns of the castle, which was returned by the guns of the fleet. Little in the way of booty was to be found here, excepting the trumpery wares used in trafficking with native savages, and these were scarcely worth taking away. St. Domingo, a small place about twelve miles inland, was also taken and stripped of anything that was , thought worth lifting. The islanders, if they possessed any valuable property of a portable kind, had succeeded in securely concealing it, and threats failed to make them disclose its whereabouts. After a little burning and wrecking, in token of their displeasure, the invaders retired. It should be mentioned that these islanders had provoked severe treatment at the hands of any English seamen who might visit them. A short time before this they had treated an English sailor boy,



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who had fallen into their hands, with the most barbarous and wanton cruelty; his mangled remains were found by his countrymen. They had also, not long before Drake's visit, murdered the crew of a Bristol ship, while it was under the protection of a flag of truce.

On the cruise a large number of men in the fleet were carried off by malignant fever. At St. Christopher and Dominica the cruisers obtained good value in tobacco and cassada in exchange for some of the St. Iago toys, that took the fancy of the natives. The wealthy city of St. Domingo was next attacked, taken, and plundered. All that could be squeezed out of the inhabitants as ransom, after the city had been partly burned and wrecked, by way of persuasion, was twenty-five thousand ducats. During the time the burning and negotiation were proceeding, an incident occurred that sheds some light on Drake's character. A negro boy, sent to the leading people with a message connected with the ransom negotiations, was furiously assaulted and badly wounded by some Spanish officers. Drake was enraged at this insult to himself through his flag of truce, and commanded the provost-marshal, with a guard, to take two unfortunate monks, his prisoners, to the place where the flag had been violated, and there to hang them publicly. A message was sent to the governor informing him that until the persons who had violated his flag of truce and the law of nations were given up, two Spanish

prisoners would be executed daily. The offenders were sent in at once, and, to emphasise the humiliation and punishment, their own countrymen were compelled to be their executioners.

Carthagená was next attacked. It was bravely defended. Alonzo Bravo, the governor, was made prisoner, and the place was held for six weeks. Fever raged in the ships of the fleet, hundreds of men falling victims ; every third man was dead or dying. After destroying part of the town, in the attempt to force a heavy ransom, the trifling sum of eleven thousand ducats was accepted for the preservation of what was left of the place. The fever was a powerful auxiliary to the inhabitants, in inducing a quick settlement and speedy departure.

Sailing by the coast of Florida, Drake's force burned St. Helena and St. Augustin, two forts and settlements of the Spaniards. They brought away from Florida Mr. Lane, the governor, and the remains of an unfortunate colony, that had been sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh. With the settlers Drake brought home also a quantity of the tobacco they had grown, which was probably the first considerable importation of this Indian product to England. Whether tobacco was introduced to England by Drake or Raleigh is a disputed point ; but the introduction into England of the potato by Drake is not disputed.

BAY OF CARTHAGEN.





The expedition returned in July 1586, bringing two hundred brass guns and forty iron cannon, with £60,000 of prize money, £20,000 of which was divided amongst the men, the remainder being shared by the adventurers. Although the private gains from the expedition were small, the dismantling of so many fortresses at the beginning of the war was important public service.

Rumours of the intended overpowering Spanish Armada were now rife in England, and caused great alarm. The patriotic merchants of London fitted out, at their own expense, a squadron to be placed under Drake's command, and to be used by him in such operations as he might think best fitted to delay or to frustrate the boasted design of the Spanish king to invade and subdue England. The fleet consisted of thirty vessels of various sizes, including the following queen's ships :—the *Bonaventura*, of 600 tons, carrying Drake's flag; the *Lion*, of 500 tons, with Admiral Burroughs commanding, sent, it was suspected, as a check or spy upon Drake, as Doughty was supposed to have been in the South Sea expedition; the *Rainbow*, of 500 tons; the *Dreadnought*, of 400 tons; and two pinnaces.

Drake sailed with the squadron thus provided in April 1587. In his course he learned that Cadiz was crowded with transports and store-ships, and he proceeded thither.

The mouth of the harbour was narrow, protected by batteries on each side, and a number of powerful war galleys were said to be within. A council of war was held, at which Admiral Burroughs vehemently opposed endangering Her Majesty's fleet—he should have added, his own safety—by an attack. Drake was not to be deterred by timid counsels; the captains of the fleet caught his spirit, and they stood in for the harbour, running the gauntlet of the batteries. A shot hit the *Lion*, Burroughs' ship, whereupon its timid commander backed out of the assault, and drifted out to sea upon the ebbing tide; the other ships passed on. A large ship of war, found in the harbour, was quickly sunk. The war galleys came out, but were demoralised by the first broadside, and Drake brought up in a position out of reach of shot from the shore, and where he had absolute command of the harbour and all that floated in it. There were many scores of store-ships, large roomy vessels, some of them of as much as from 1200 to 1500 tons. They were fully loaded with corn, wine, biscuits, dried fruits, and general stores, destined for Lisbon, and the use of the projected Armada. The crews of the store-ships fled, leaving their vessels and their cargoes to the will of the invaders, who selected what would be of use to them and they could carry away. This selection having been speedily made, the cables of the store-ships were cut, every one of them set

on fire, and, on the top of the flood tide, they were sent drifting into the town, a great tangled mass of blazing ruin.

A division of the Armada was expected to come out of the Mediterranean. Drake determined to waylay and give it battle, should he feel justified in considering its defeat possible. In this cruise he picked up fresh convoys of store-ships, loaded variously, with oars for the galleys, cask staves sufficient for thirty thousand hogsheads and other commodities. They were making all possible speed for the Tagus. They were, as fallen in with, taken and sunk, or burned, and far and wide over the space between Cape St. Vincent and Gibraltar, the sky-line was broken by the smoke of burning ships. Drake determined to await the expected enemy in a locality not far off from Cape St. Vincent, and elected to use Faro as an anchorage and watering-place. The forts were troublesome, and he determined to land and destroy them. Burroughs again interposed, magnifying the peril. Drake did not order his execution as he had done in Doughty's case, nor excommunicate him as he had done with Chaplain Fletcher, but he took a step in the same direction; he deposed the vice-admiral, and ordered him to consider himself a prisoner in his own cabin. Burroughs managed to get more completely out of harm's way than he could ever hope to be in Drake's company, by ingloriously slipping away home.

Drake did not remain long at Faro, but set sail determined, if he could, to draw Santa Cruz, the great Spanish commander, himself into a fight. He knew that the Spaniards were in enormous force, but he also knew that his own tight little frigates were so much more easily handled than the big unwieldy Spanish galleons, that he could whisk round them keeping up a continuous fire, and, if he found them too heavy for him, could easily get out of their range. It has been, we think truthfully, said of Drake, as accounting for his audacious bravery, that he had much of the spirit that animated Cromwell and the Puritans. He had the conviction that, in his conflict with the Spaniards, he was fighting on God's side, and this gave him a degree of confidence that almost secured success. In his estimation, the Spaniards, powerful though they were, "were still but sons of mortal men, for the most part enemies of the truth, upholders of Dagon's image, which had already fallen before the ark." He believed that the "continuing to the end yielded the true glory," and that "when men thoroughly believed that what they were doing was in defence of their religion and country, a merciful God, for Christ's sake, would give them the victory, nor would Satan and his ministers prevail against them."

At Lisbon, Drake received restraining orders from home, forbidding him to strike directly at Philip's kingly power. Drake, however, did not understand the in-

triguing and tortuous spirit and ways of diplomacy, and sent in a challenge to the Marquis of Santa Cruz to come out and fight him. The challenge was not accepted, and he continued hovering about Cintra, burning carefully, quickly, and completely, everything burnable which might have any connection with the Armada that he could catch. The bold rover, commanding four small ships of war and a few privateers, having thus challenged unsuccessfully the united navies of Spain and Portugal, having destroyed an enormous number of their store-ships and stores, including bread and wine enough to have served forty thousand men for a year, sailed northwards along the coast of Portugal, clearing the seas and sweeping the harbours of every object fixed or floating that came within his power which seemed capable of helping the enemy in the contemplated attack upon his country. His last port of call was Corunna, where, as in all other Spanish ports he visited, Sir Francis left his mark, and continued the congenial operation, as he facetiously pronounced it, of "singeing the king's beard."

So much in the way of public service for queen and country, he had now to consider the interests of the patriotic citizens whose ships had been placed under his command. As a man of war he had done all that was possible, and more than could have been reasonably anticipated from him; he now turned to his duties as a

man of business. He had ascertained that a richly-laden Portuguese carack from the East Indies was expected soon at Terceira. He sailed for the Azores, but, falling short of provisions, found his powers of control severely taxed in keeping down the spirit of mutiny among the crews. He did contrive, however, by promises and threats, to keep order until they fell in with the expected prize, which was the richest that had ever yet been taken, not excepting the *Cacafuego*. Having thus delivered the first heavy blow against the Armada, and having secured a reward for the patriotic citizens, and a return for their stake in the venture, Sir Francis once more returned to England in triumph, not certainly with peace, but with honour. In the interval Sir Francis spent at home after these stirring scenes, he distinguished himself as a civil engineer and a good citizen, by providing Plymouth with what it was much in need of—an ample supply of good pure water, which was conveyed from springs eight miles distant by a direct course, reduced in distance from a channel twenty miles long. The important and costly works were executed under the direction and at the cost of Sir Francis, and were a spontaneous and disinterested gift to the town.

Drake's brilliant services to the State were recognised and admitted in his being honoured with the appointment of Vice-Admiral under Lord Charles Howard of Effingham, High Admiral of England.

The invincible Spanish Armada at last reached completion, and England, as a power in the world, was to be crushed and stamped out of existence. Spain, that Drake had done so much to humble, was at that time the greatest European state, but it was not Spain alone that menaced England. Spain, Portugal, and Italy united in making up the Armada, and the vast and motley crew that manned it was drawn from almost every part of the known world: galley slaves from Constantinople and Algiers, Jesuits from Rheims, exiled priests from England, Ireland, and other countries,—the faithful, as they considered themselves, of all countries,—gathered at the trumpet call of the Church to the expected spoil of the heretics.

Froude, in his *History*, gives, with the aid of a wide range of authentic documents, an admirable account of the Armada and its composition. It consisted of six squadrons, that included sixty-five large ships, the smallest of them of 700 tons, seven of them over 1000 tons, and the largest, an Italian, 1300 tons. They were all built high, had musket-proof upper works, with main timbers four and five feet thick, strong enough, as was hoped, to resist the piercing power of any English cannon that could be brought to bear on them. Secure as they thought themselves in the guardianship of Heaven, the Spaniards gave saintly names to their ships, which included the *Lady of the Rosary*, and *Saints James and John, Matthew*,

*Martin*, and *Philip*. Next to the galleons were four great galleasses, large galleys, each carrying 50 guns, 450 soldiers and sailors, and rowed by 300 slaves. In addition to these were four other large galleys, and fifty-six armed merchant vessels, the best that Spain possessed, and twenty caravels, or pinnaces, attached to the larger ships. The Spanish fighting fleet, in summary, consisted of 129 vessels, with 2430 brass and iron cannon,—the finest that the Spanish foundries could produce. The smallest of the sixty-five large galleons before referred to was of greater tonnage than the most powerful ship in the English Navy, excepting the five that had been last added to it. The store of provisions was enormous, sufficient to feed forty thousand men for six months. The supply of ammunition on board the Armada for ship use was small, King Philip and his advisers having rashly jumped to the conclusion that, in a single action, they would completely sweep the English fleet from the sea.

It was known in England that the Armada had put to sea, and had encountered a storm by which, it was hoped, it had been dispersed, if not destroyed. This hope was dispelled by the intelligence that it was off the mouth of the Channel. The news was brought in by Thomas Fleming, a Scotsman, master of a piratical pinnace. Fleming, known to be a plunderer of the seas, like many of his betters, was rewarded by Queen Elizabeth with

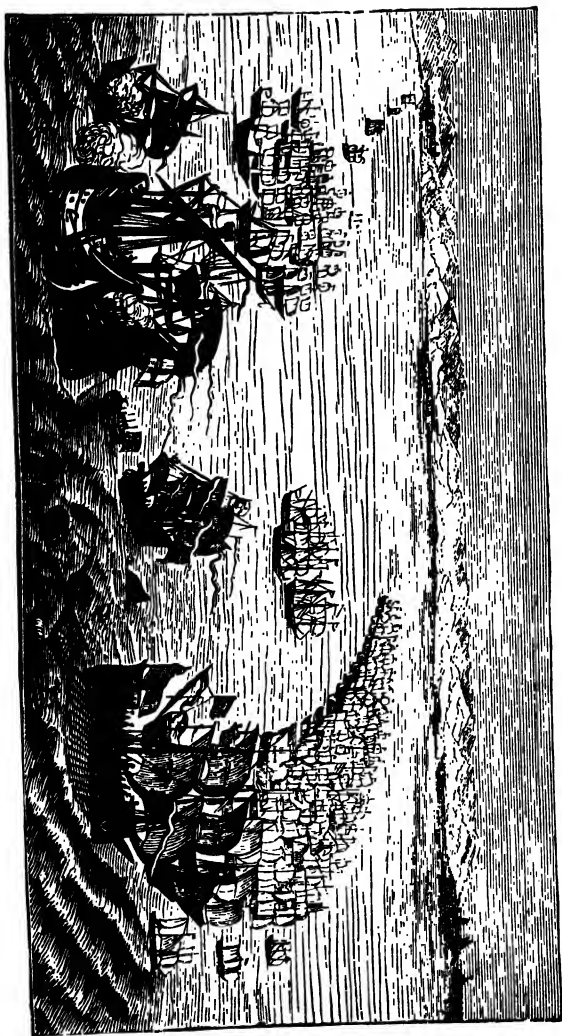


pardon and a pension for having kept such a good look-out, and for having given such timely notice concerning the unwelcome visitors.

It was on the afternoon of 19th July 1588 that the intelligence of the approach of the Armada reached Lord Howard. The alarm was rapidly spread from post to post throughout the country, and at night all along the coasts the heights were ablaze with beacon fires.

At Plymouth the queen's ships and a few of the privateers were got together ready for action. On the 20th Lord Howard put out from Plymouth, and on the following day, his fleet being reinforced to forty sail, he opened the attack upon the Spaniards.

The English Royal Navy consisted of only forty ships, with an aggregate weight of artillery, less than half of that carried by the Armada. The Spanish fleet sailed up channel in the form of a crescent, with a distance of about seven miles between the horns. They were attacked by the English in the rear, and grievously harassed from the swift sailing, skilful manœuvring, clever handling, and rapid and deadly firing of the English ships—their own fire being slow and badly aimed. Indecisive actions without decisive results continued for several days. One of the many incidents, in which Drake took a prominent part, merits notice. One of the large galleons in the Armada, commanded by



SPANISH ARMADA.



Don Pedro de Valdez, a don of illustrious family and of high official rank, who had fifty Spanish noblemen and gentlemen on board with him, and a crew of four hundred and fifty men, had got separated from its consorts, and was overtaken by Drake, to whom it surrendered on summons. Don Pedro kissed the hand of his conqueror, and assured him that they had resolved to die rather than surrender, if they had not fallen into the hands of such a chivalrous commander, who was as generous and gentle to the vanquished as he was valiant, wise, and prosperous. Impressed, possibly, by this courteous though not very courageous speech, Drake treated his prisoners kindly, sent them ashore, and afterwards got £3500 for their ransom. The captors found 55,000 ducats in the galleon, which Drake divided amongst his crew.

The Spaniards continued their course up the Channel, and on the 27th anchored off Calais. Lord Howard formed a junction in the Straits of Dover with Lord Henry Seymour and Sir William Winter. On the 28th the English executed successfully a startling stratagem. Eight of the worst ships of the fleet were selected and freighted with as much pitch, tar, rosin, and fierce combustibles as could be got together. The guns were charged with grape and chain shot; the ships, the riggings smeared with pitch, were set on fire, and, driven by wind and tide, were sent blazing furiously into the

midst of King Philip's "most happy and invincible Armada." Dreadful consternation and panic seized the Spaniards, and the order rang out through the invading fleet, "Cut your cables, get up your anchors, and put to sea." The morning light disclosed that one of the largest of the four great galleasses was aground on Calais bar. She was manned by about seven hundred men, and powerfully armed. The Spaniards fought bravely, but the numerous galley slaves among the crew offered a poor defence. Monçada, the commander of the galleas, was killed, and many of his crew were either killed or drowned in attempting to escape to the shore. The Duke de Medina Sidonia, Admiral of the Armada, intended after the flight from the fire-ships to return to his former position at Calais, and during the night signals were sent up for the ships to collect and return. Drake, who had a clear apprehension of the situation, determined if possible to drive the Spaniards into the unknown waters of the North Sea; he, with his own squadron, joined by that of Lord Henry Seymour, having the advantage of wind, speed, and skill, attacked the Spaniards while they were still dispersed, and poured into them a continuous shower of shot, until they became an entangled, confused, helpless mass, a mere target for the English guns. When the morning of the next day, July 29th, dawned on the miserable Armada, the survivors again saw on their weather-beam the

dreaded English fleet, which resumed the work of destruction. Drake fell upon Duke Medina, the Spanish admiral, who, with a number of galleons that were better handled than others, was endeavouring to keep sea-room. Their poor sailing powers put them at a disadvantage for which skill and courage could not compensate. The English kept always to windward, and Duke Medina's squadron, like the others, was forced back upon his consorts, and the whole Spanish fleet driven upon the shoals of the coast of Flanders. The Spaniards, and the English also, were short of ammunition, and what the Spaniards used was wasted; their gun practice was pitiable;—slowly and awkwardly they ran their guns upon moving platforms, sending their shot into the air or into the sea, inflicting no injury; whereas the English shot, sent into them throughout the livelong day without intermission, told home. No prizes were taken; the orders were to sink or destroy the enemy. Great galleons were seen to go down, others to drift helplessly ashore, to be stranded. "Being always to leeward and the wind blowing hard, the hulls of the galleons as they heeled over were exposed below the water-line." The massive timbers that were to have given security added to the effectiveness of the shot. "The middle decks were turned into slaughter-houses, and in one ship blood was seen streaming from the lee scuppers. Their guns were most of them dismounted or

knocked to pieces, and their chief work was to save themselves from sinking by nailing sheets of lead over the shot-holes." The action was on so large a scale, and there was so much smoke and confusion, that the engaged could only see what was close to them. The galleons to which Drake directed special attention were those commanded by Duke Medina Sidonia, the admiral; Don Pedro Calderon, purser of the Armada; the *Rata*, commanded by Alonzo da Leyva; the *San Matteo*, commanded by Don Diego de Pimentel; and the *San Felipe*, commanded by Don Francisco de Toledo, formerly viceroy at Lima, whom Drake refused to meet on the occasion of his passing call at Callao in 1579. Although at a frightful disadvantage, the dons fought with desperate courage. In the day's action, Drake's ship was pierced with forty shots, two of which went through his cabin.

A number of the vessels of the Armada were stranded on the shore. The operations afloat, which continued till evening, could not be called a battle, they were "but the rending and tearing of a scarce resisting enemy." Towards sunset the wind shifted to the north-west, with an increasing sea. The shattered ships were driving in a mass towards the banks,—and had the English powder held out for a few hours more, the entire Armada must have been either sunk or driven ashore. Gun after gun, however, became gradually silent. A



FIRE-SHIPS ATTACKING THE ARMADA,





few provision ships came off from the 'Thames with a day or two's rations. The men were exhausted, with toil and hunger combined, and the fleet hauled off to take on board the supplies so sorely needed. It was computed that four thousand men of the Armada were killed or drowned in the course of the day, with probably as many wounded. The galleons were pierced, shattered, and leaky, rigging cut up, masts splintered, sails torn, rudders, yards, and bowsprits shot away, and most of the water-casks destroyed.

The boasted "most happy Armada" had already reached to the beginning of its miserable end. The thoughts of the Spanish dons were now directed, not to the invasion of England, but to keeping out of range of the guns of the English fleet, and the quickest, or rather, the least dangerous way of returning to Spain. It should be borne in mind, as tending to excuse their apprehensions, that the Spaniards commenced the contest with their maximum power and resources, which must necessarily diminish from day to day. They were cut adrift from their base of operations, and had no certain source on which to rely for reinforcements and supplies. On the other hand, England was thoroughly aroused, and its wealth and population were available, and eagerly offered for the increase and the maintenance of the fighting forces of the country by sea and land.

Duke Medina Sidonia called a council of war, which . . .

was attended by the principal commanders and sailing masters of the Armada. Their distressing and humiliating deliberations were entered upon with the bitter consciousness that their great and presumptuous project had signally failed ; that the proud power of Spain was broken ; that, whatever personal sacrifices the leaders might be willing to incur in further aggressive action, it was hopeless to expect that the men they commanded could be brought to the risk of facing again such scenes as they had gone through. The safest homeward route was the principal topic that the council had to discuss and determine—to choose between the danger that would be encountered in meeting the English fleet, if they attempted to return by way of the Channel, and the perils of the navigation if they fled from the enemy by way of the Pentland Firth and the inhospitable shores and barren islets of the west of Scotland and Ireland. The circuitous route was chosen, and a course of terrible suffering was continued to the miserable invaders. The Spanish fleet made all sail for home by way of the Orkney Islands, although that voyage involved many great unseen dangers, and more than a thousand miles of extra sailing. The further history of the “happy Armada” is a story of hunger and thirst, cold and nakedness, indescribable sufferings, and horrible disasters.\*

On the 30th July the scattered and shattered ships of

the Armada set sail for the sunny south, by way of the North Sea. Drake and the Lord Admiral, with ninety ships and five days' provisions, closely followed the retreating enemy. Drake at this date wrote to Walsingham, Secretary of State: "We have the army of Spain before us, and mean, by the grace of God, to wrestle or fall with it. There was never anything pleased me better than seeing the enemy flying with a southerly wind to the northwards. I doubt not, ere it be long, so to handle the matter with the Duke of Sidonia, as he shall wish himself at St. Mary Port among his orange-trees."

Stronger and more surly blew the blast as the Armada sped northwards. Drowned and drowning horses and mules were met by the pursuing fleet. They had been flung overboard to save the scanty water supply. The crippled ships dropped behind one after another, with shattered spars and leaking joints, and were left to founder without attempted succour. The provisions of the English ships having been well-nigh consumed, they left the remnant of the unhappy Armada to pursue its dreary way without further molestation. One after another foundered, or was wrecked, one as far north as the Faroe Isles, others on the Orkneys, and on the Scottish and Irish coasts.

About the end of September the survivors began to

arrive home, each with a more horrible and pitiable tale of suffering and privation to tell than the others. Fifty-four vessels, and between nine and ten thousand living men, was all that remained of the proud Invincible Armada. What a humiliating counter-check to the news that had been spread abroad in Spain, that "the Lord Admiral and Drake were taken, with the loss of many of the queen's ships; that Plymouth was theirs, and Portsmouth; and that in a few days they would be in London. 'That great dog, Francis Drake, is prisoner with chain and fetters.'" The survivors from battle, famine, sickness, and suffering declared Drake to be "a devil, and no man." Drake's name was in every mouth. Against him saints and angels had no more power than mortals; he seemed to be an incarnate spirit of evil, let loose to afflict the Spanish race throughout the world.

A medal was struck, in commemoration of the wonderful defeat, and there was engraved on it the memorable words, "*Afflavit et dissipantur*,"—He blew upon them, and they were scattered. The whole nation was aroused, as with one soul, to return thanks to God for His marvellous deliverance. Bonfires were seen from hill to hill, and illuminations in the towns and villages. Queen Elizabeth went up to St. Paul's in great state to take part in the national thanksgiving, amidst crowds of her subjects met to hail her. England

breathed now freely. She stood on a footing of equality with the greatest powers of the world. Her future seemed bright. The dark clouds had vanished. A new and lasting greatness opened on the sea. The deliverance from the fear of Spain and its cruel monarch, the dark agent of the most hateful tyranny, the dissipating of that terror which had so long clouded her prospects, was like a resurrection from the dead. In all homes, from end to end of the land, there was heard the shout of joy.

In the year following the dispersion of the Armada, Drake was appointed to the command of a fleet sent to operate in the restoration of Dom Antonio to the throne of Portugal, in conjunction with Sir John Norris, who commanded a land force. The commanders differed as to the plan of operations, and the expedition failed to effect its object.

In 1595 Drake and Sir John Hawkins were appointed joint commanders of a powerful expedition to the West Indies, intended to crush the Spanish power in that quarter. The force consisted of six queen's ships, and twenty-one others, carrying two thousand five hundred seamen and soldiers. The plunder of Panama and the destruction of Nombre de Dios were amongst the objects intended. Considerable delay occurred from various causes, and the authorities in the threatened quarters had time to prepare for their unwelcome

visitors. In this expedition Drake met almost his first defeat. On the 30th October Sir John Hawkins sailed from Dominica, where his ships had taken in water and repaired. Shortly after leaving port he was attacked by the enemy in force, and had one of his ships—the *Francis*—captured. This disaster gave confidence to the Spaniards, and put them quite on the alert. Sir John fell sick, and on the 12th November died of disease and grief combined. The English fleet was at this time within range of the guns of Porto Rico. While the officers were at supper, a shot reached them in the cabin, killed Sir Nicholas Clifford, mortally wounded Mr. Brute Browne and some other officers, and knocked from under Admiral Drake the stool upon which he sat. The enemy were fully prepared for the attack which Drake delivered. The treasure and the women and children had been removed. The impetuous attack of the English inflicted serious loss and injury upon the Spaniards, but it was virtually a failure. After a few days the English fleet stood for the main, and took Rio de la Hacha, La Rancheria, and some other places, which they burned, on finding that they could not exact a ransom. It was the same with every place visited; everything of value had been cleared out of the Spanish towns, and they were abandoned to be occupied by the English rather than taken by their armed assault. Santa Marta and







Nombre de Dios fell into the hands of the English, almost without resistance. They were both burned. Sir Thomas Baskerville, who had succeeded Sir John Hawkins, attempted to make his way to Panama with a force of about seven hundred and fifty soldiers. The Spaniards were fully prepared to resist his progress, and harassed him continually by ambushed attacks. Destitute of provisions, and suffering greatly, the party turned, and had to fight their way back to their ships. This last, the most grievous of the train of disappointments, seemed to break the spirit of the commander. The nation expected great things from the expedition. Drake had embarked much of his fortune and his high reputation in it,—and it had signally failed. The depressing circumstances induced a condition of which the admiral's active, adventurous life had given him little previous experience. After a severe illness of about three weeks' duration, he expired on board his own ship, off Porto Bello, on the 28th January 1596, in his fifty-first year according to one authority, or in his fifty-seventh according to another. His remains were placed in a lead coffin, and, with imposing ceremony and solemnity, committed to the deep. His death was universally lamented by the nation,—and pity now mingled with the admiration that had been excited by his valour and genius.

Drake was a thorough seaman, able in his own person

to discharge every duty devolving upon a sailor, from the rank of man before the mast to the admiral in command, including ministering to the sick, and dressing the hurts of the wounded. He took an active part personally, by actual work or zealous superintendence, in the duties attending watering, repairs, and other departments of work. He mastered the sciences, particularly astronomy, that were connected with navigation, in so far as these sciences were then developed. In what he essayed to do, if left to the guidance of his own judgment, he was as a rule successful. He did more to advance the naval power and reputation of England than any navigator that had lived before his time. He opened up several new and important sources of trade, and led, by the journals, charts, and documents he found in one of his prizes—the *St. Philip*—to the formation of the East India Company. In conjunction with Sir John Hawkins he was instrumental in establishing the "Chest" at Chatham for the benefit of sick and aged seamen, and had the credit of many good and disinterested works. He sat in two Parliaments, and was a ready and effective speaker. He married, but left no children. He has been described as low in stature, but well built, with a broad chest and a good compact head. His complexion was fair, his countenance open and cheerful, his beard full and a light brown colour. The expression of his face indicated un-

mistakably the promptitude and decision of character that distinguished him throughout the whole of his remarkable career.

The deeds of individual daring which he performed, his resolute and relentless conflicts with the Spaniards, considered at the time in which he lived to be the most deadly enemies of England, his voyage round the world,—the first made in an English ship,—and the prominent and efficient part he took in connection with the greatest achievement of Queen Elizabeth's reign, the destruction of the Spanish Armada, united to make him the most distinguished naval hero that Britain had up to his time produced.

Circumstances were eminently favourable for bringing into lively exercise the qualities and powers that Drake possessed in such a remarkable degree. The growing spirit of hostility between the peoples and sovereigns of England and Spain generated a spirit of naval enterprise, and furnished stimulus and motive to Drake and other adventurers. The intolerance of the Spaniards in excluding from trading connection all who were not Roman Catholics, and the absurd claims they founded on the pope's presumptuous grant to Spain of lordship over the new world and seignorial rights over the Indies, with the excessive cruelty the Spaniards exercised in attempting to enforce their insolent pretensions, naturally provoked active and inveterate hostility,

and brought to the front such men as Drake and other adventurers, whose buccaneering exploits, not in all cases defensible, were the natural outcome of the misdeeds of the haughty hidalgos, and of the mischievous arrogance of their master the pope.

The principal original materials from which a narrative of Drake's voyages can be compiled are contained in the volume published by the Hakluyt Society, *The World Encompassed by Sir Francis Drake, collated with an unpublished manuscript of Francis Fletcher, Chaplain to the Expedition. With Appendices.* It also contains important additional matter in the narratives of John Cooke and Nuna da Silva, both of whom were with the expedition for different parts of its course—Cooke for the first portion, and Da Silva for a period coming after Cooke's separation from it and his return with Captain Winter from Magellan's Straits.



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